

## Polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup> T-Cell Induction in Neutralizing Antibody-Triggered Control of Simian Immunodeficiency Virus Infection<sup>∇</sup>

Takuya Yamamoto,<sup>1,2,†</sup> Nami Iwamoto,<sup>3,†</sup> Hiroyuki Yamamoto,<sup>3,†</sup> Tetsuo Tsukamoto,<sup>3</sup>  
Tetsuya Kuwano,<sup>3</sup> Akiko Takeda,<sup>3</sup> Miki Kawada,<sup>3</sup> Yasuko Tsunetsugu-Yokota,<sup>1</sup>  
and Tetsuro Matano<sup>3,4,5,\*</sup>

*Department of Immunology<sup>1</sup> and AIDS Research Center,<sup>4</sup> National Institute of Infectious Diseases, 1-23-1 Toyama, Shinjuku-Ku, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan; Division of Cellular and Molecular Biology<sup>2</sup> and International Research Center for Infectious Diseases,<sup>3</sup> Institute of Medical Science, University of Tokyo, 4-6-1 Shirokanedai, Minato-Ku, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan; and Tsukuba Primate Research Center, National Institute of Biomedical Innovation, 1 Hachimandai, Tsukuba 305-0843, Japan<sup>5</sup>*

Received 22 January 2009/Accepted 6 March 2009

**Rapid depletion of memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells and delayed induction of neutralizing antibody (NAb) responses are characteristics of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) infections. Although it was speculated that postinfection NAb induction could have only a limited suppressive effect on primary HIV replication, a recent study has shown that a single passive NAb immunization of rhesus macaques 1 week after SIV challenge can result in reduction of viral loads at the set point, indicating a possible contribution of postinfection NAb responses to virus control. However, the mechanism accounting for this NAb-triggered SIV control has remained unclear. Here, we report rapid induction of virus-specific polyfunctional T-cell responses after the passive NAb immunization postinfection. Analysis of SIV Gag-specific responses of gamma interferon, tumor necrosis factor alpha, interleukin-2, macrophage inflammatory protein 1β, and CD107a revealed that the polyfunctionality of Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, as defined by the multiplicity of these responses, was markedly elevated in the acute phase in NAb-immunized animals. In the chronic phase, despite the absence of detectable NABs, virus control was maintained, accompanied by polyfunctional Gag-specific T-cell responses. These results implicate virus-specific polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in this NAb-triggered virus control, suggesting possible synergism between NABs and T cells for control of HIV/SIV replication.**

Virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses are crucial for the control of pathogenic human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) and simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) infections (5, 6, 20, 23, 30, 39, 40). However, CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, especially CCR5<sup>+</sup> memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, are themselves targets for these viruses, which may be an obstacle to potent virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction (10, 47, 52). Indeed, HIV-1/SIV infection causes rapid, massive depletion of memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (26, 31), and host immune responses fail to contain viral replication and allow persistent chronic infection, although virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses exert suppressive pressure on viral replication (15).

Recently, the importance of T-cell quality in virus containment has been high-lighted, and T-cell polyfunctionality, which is defined by their multiplicity of antigen-specific cytokine production, has been analyzed as an indicator of T-cell quality (4, 8, 11, 41). However, there has been no evidence indicating an association of polyfunctional T-cell responses in the acute phase with HIV-1/SIV control. Even in the chronic phase, whether polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses may be associ-

ated with virus control has been unclear, although an inverse correlation between polyfunctional CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses and viral loads has been shown in HIV-1-infected individuals (4).

Another characteristic of HIV-1/SIV infections is the absence of potent neutralizing antibody (NAb) induction during the acute phase (7). This is mainly due to the unusually neutralization-resistant nature of the virus, such as masking of target epitopes in viral envelope proteins (24). Whether this lack of effective NAb response contributes to the failure to control the virus, and whether NAb induction in the acute phase can contribute to virus control, remains unclear. Previous studies documenting virus escape from NAb recognition suggested that NABs can also exert selective pressure on viral replication to a certain extent (38, 45, 49), but it was speculated that postinfection NAB induction could have only a limited suppressive effect on primary HIV-1/SIV replication (34, 37).

By passive NAb immunization of rhesus macaques after SIV challenge, we recently provided evidence indicating that the presence of NABs during the acute phase can result in SIV control (50). In that study, passive NAb immunization 1 week after SIVmac239 challenge resulted in transient detectable NAb responses followed by reduction in set point viral loads compared to unimmunized macaques. However, the mechanism of this virus control has remained unclear. In the present study, we found rapid appearance of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses after such passive NAb immunization postinfection. These animals maintained virus control

\* Corresponding author. Mailing address: International Research Center for Infectious Diseases, Institute of Medical Science, University of Tokyo, 4-6-1 Shirokanedai, Minato-Ku, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan. Phone: 81-3-6409-2078. Fax: 81-3-6409-2076. E-mail: matano@ims.u-tokyo.ac.jp.

† T.Y., N.I., and H.Y. contributed equally to this work.

<sup>∇</sup> Published ahead of print on 18 March 2009.

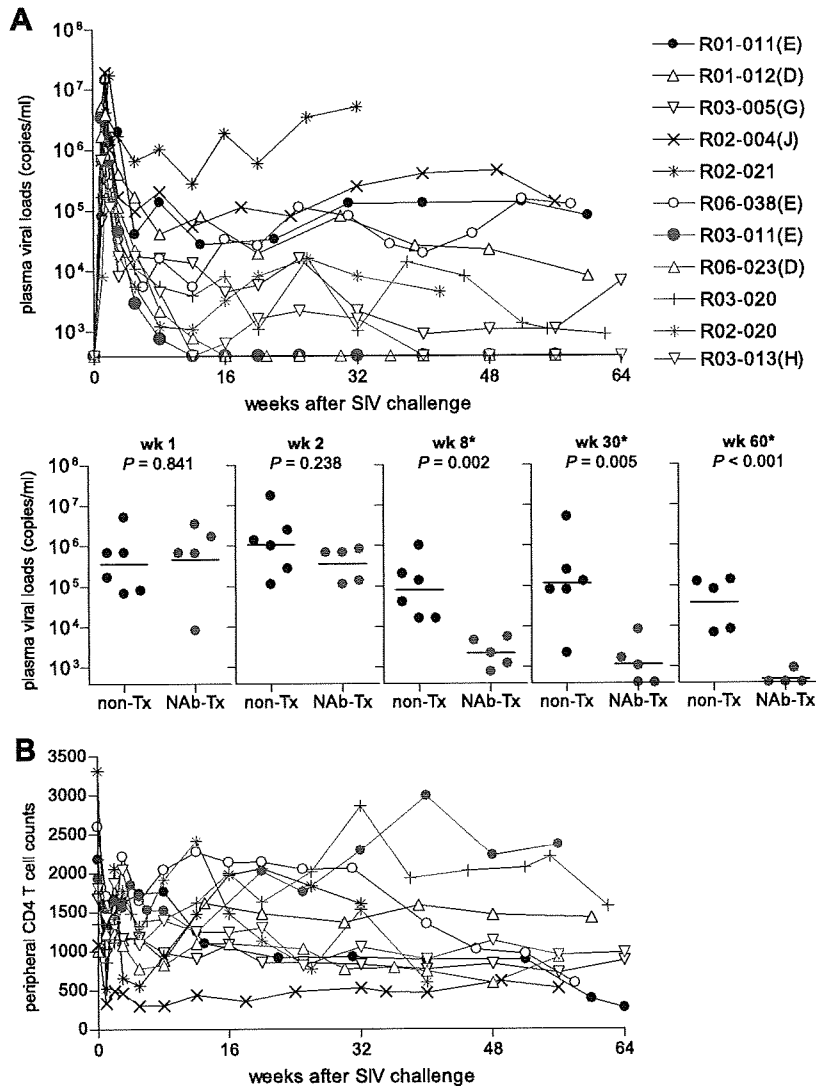


FIG. 1. Follow up of NAb-immunized macaques. (A) Plasma viral loads (SIV *gag* RNA copies/ml plasma) in six unimmunized macaques (black lines) and five NAb-immunized animals (red lines) after SIVmac239 challenge. The plasma viral loads were measured as described previously (29). The lower limit of detection was approximately  $4 \times 10^2$  copies/ml. The MHC-I haplotypes are shown in parentheses following the macaque numbers as follows: E, haplotype 90-010-Ie; D, 90-010-Id; G, 90-030-Ig; J, 90-088-Ij; and H, 90-030-Ih. Below are comparisons of plasma viral loads in unimmunized (non-Tx) and NAb-immunized (NAb-Tx) macaques at weeks (wk) 1, 2, 8, 30, and 60. The bars indicate the geometric mean of each group. The comparisons at weeks 8, 30, and 60 (indicated by asterisks) showed significant differences between two groups ( $P = 0.841$  at week 1,  $P = 0.238$  at week 2,  $P = 0.002$  at week 8,  $P = 0.005$  around week 30, and  $P < 0.001$  around week 60 by *t* test). (B) Peripheral CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell counts (per  $\mu$ l) in unimmunized controls (black lines) and NAb-immunized macaques (red lines) after SIVmac239 challenge. The ratios of the counts around week 60 to those at week 0 in NAb-immunized macaques were significantly higher than in unimmunized controls ( $P = 0.028$  by *t* test).

for more than 1 year in the absence of detectable plasma NABs, which was accompanied by potent Gag-specific T-cell responses. These results implicate virus-specific polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in this NAB-triggered primary and long-term SIV control.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Animal experiments.** We previously showed a reduction in set point viral loads by passive NAb immunization of rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*) 1 week after SIVmac239 challenge (50). In the present study, we monitored these animals, including one additional NAb-immunized macaque (R06-023), for more than 1

year. Thus, five NAb-immunized rhesus macaques and six unimmunized controls were used in this study. Unimmunized macaque R02-021 was euthanized at week 32 because the animal showed loss of body weight, diarrhea, and general weakness. NAb-immunized macaque R02-020 was euthanized at week 42 because of a limitation on available cage numbers. Major histocompatibility complex class I (MHC-I) haplotypes were determined by reference strand-mediated conformation analysis as described previously (2, 29). A group of rhesus macaques possessing the MHC-I haplotype 90-120-Ia with the potential to efficiently elicit potent Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses (21, 29) were not included in this study. All animals were maintained in accordance with the guidelines for animal experiments performed at the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (33).

For passive NAb immunization, immunoglobulin G (IgG) was purified from plasma samples from SIVmac239-infected macaques with SIV-specific NAB re-



production in day 12 culture supernatants was examined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays for detection of SIV p27 core antigen (Advanced BioScience Laboratories, Inc., Kensington, MD) to determine the 100% neutralizing end-point. The lower limit of titration was 1:2.

**Analysis of polyfunctional Gag-specific T-cell responses.** We analyzed Gag-specific induction of gamma interferon (IFN- $\gamma$ ), tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ), interleukin-2 (IL-2), macrophage inflammatory protein 1 $\beta$  (MIP-1 $\beta$ ), and CD107a in CD4 $^{+}$  and CD8 $^{+}$  T cells as described previously (1). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were cultured for 6 h in the absence or the presence of 10  $\mu$ g/ml of a recombinant SIV Gag p55 (Protein Sciences, Meriden, CT) for unstimulated controls or Gag-specific stimulation (12). They were incubated with anti-human CD28 and anti-human CD49d antibodies (5  $\mu$ g/ml) (BD, Tokyo, Japan) for costimulation and with anti-human CD107a antibody (BD) for immunostaining. Monensin (BD) and brefeldin A (Sigma-Aldrich, Tokyo, Japan) were added to the culture for the final 5 h of stimulation. Then, immunostaining was performed using a CytotfixCytoperm kit (BD) and the following monoclonal antibodies: fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated anti-human IFN- $\gamma$  (BD), phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-human MIP-1 $\beta$  (BD), peridinin chlorophyll protein-conjugated anti-human CD4 (BD), allophycocyanin (APC)-conjugated anti-human IL-2 (BD), PE-Cy7-conjugated anti-human TNF- $\alpha$  (BD), APC-Cy7-conjugated anti-human CD3 (BD), energy-coupled dye-conjugated anti-human CD69 (Beckman Coulter, Tokyo, Japan), biotin-conjugated anti-human CD8 (BD), and anti-human CD107a (BD) conjugated with Pacific Blue using a Zeon mouse IgG1 labeling kit (Invitrogen, Tokyo, Japan). Flow-cytometric 10-color analysis of the induction of the five marker cytokines, IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-2, MIP-1 $\beta$ , and CD107a, was performed using the FACSaria system (BD);  $3 \times 10^5$  to  $5 \times 10^5$  lymphocyte events were analyzed. The data were analyzed using FlowJo (version 8.2; TreeStar Inc., Ashland, OR) and FACSDiva (BD) software. Analysis of polyfunctional phenotypes of T cells was carried out using PESTLE (version 1.5.4) and SPICE (version 4.1.6) programs, which were generously provided by Mario Roederer (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD). Specific T-cell levels were calculated by subtracting nonspecific T-cell frequencies from those after Gag-specific stimulation. Specific T-cell levels of less than 0.01% were considered negative.

**Analysis of proliferative Gag-specific CD4 $^{+}$  T-cell responses.** Gag-specific CD4 $^{+}$  T-cell proliferation was assessed by bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) incorporation as described previously (9). In brief, PBMCs were cultured in the absence or the presence of 10  $\mu$ g/ml p55 for 6 days for unstimulated controls or Gag-specific stimulation. Then, the cells were incubated for 2 h with 100 ng/ml BrdU and immunostained using the following monoclonal antibodies: peridinin chlorophyll protein-conjugated anti-human CD4, APC-conjugated anti-human CD95 (BD), APC-Cy7-conjugated anti-human CD3, and energy-coupled dye-conjugated anti-human CD28 (Beckman Coulter, Tokyo, Japan) for surface staining and fluorescein isothiocyanate-labeled anti-human BrdU (BD) for intracellular staining. As a positive control, PBMCs were stimulated with 1  $\mu$ g/ml staphylococcal enterotoxin B for 3 days. Flow-cytometric analysis was performed using the FACSaria system, and the data were analyzed using FlowJo (version 8.2).

**In vitro viral suppression assay.** We examined SIVmac239 replication on CD8-depleted PBMCs in the presence of CD8 $^{+}$  cells positively selected from PBMCs as described previously (46). In brief, PBMCs were separated into CD8 $^{+}$  cells and CD8 $^{-}$  cells by using Macs CD8 MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Tokyo, Japan). For preparing target cells, the CD8 $^{-}$  cells negatively selected from PBMCs obtained before challenge were infected with SIVmac239 at a multiplicity of infection of  $1:10^4$  TCID $_{50}$ /cell and cultured in the presence of 2  $\mu$ g/ml phytohemagglutinin L (Roche Diagnostics) and 20 IU/ml recombinant human IL-2 (Roche Diagnostics). Two days later, effector CD8 $^{+}$  cells positively selected from PBMCs obtained before challenge or at week 3 or 4 were added to the target cells at an effector/target (E/T) ratio of 1:4. The culture supernatants were harvested every other day. Reverse transcriptase activities in these supernatants were measured to confirm the peak of viral production in the control culture of target cells without CD8 $^{+}$  cells around day 10 after SIV infection. SIV Gag capsid protein p27 concentrations in the supernatants after 8 days of coculture (i.e., at day 10 after SIV infection) were then measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. Results from macaques R01-011, R03-005, R02-021, and R06-023 were excluded because mean p27 concentrations in the control cultures without CD8 $^{+}$  cells or in one of the duplicates were less than 50 ng/ml. The lower limit of p27 detection was approximately 0.2 ng/ml.

**Statistical analysis.** Statistical analysis was performed with Prism software version 4.03 with significance levels set at a  $P$  value of  $<0.050$  (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA). Plasma viral loads and specific T-cell frequencies were log transformed and compared between unimmunized controls and NAB-immunized macaques by an unpaired two-tailed  $t$  test. Correlation was analyzed by the Pearson test.

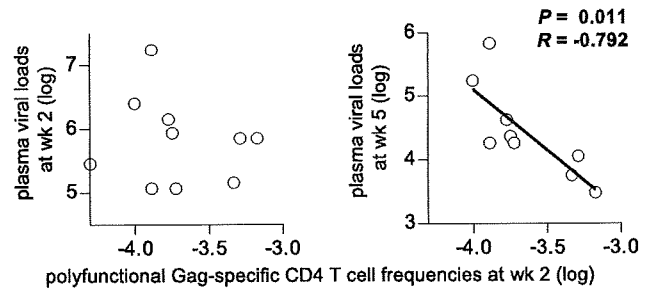


FIG. 3. Analysis of correlation between polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4 $^{+}$  T-cell frequencies (log) at week (wk) 2 and plasma viral loads (log) at week 2 (left) or week 5 (right). Inverse correlation is shown on the right ( $P = 0.011$ ;  $R = -0.792$ ), but not on the left ( $P = 0.694$ ;  $R = -0.143$ ).

## RESULTS

**Long-term SIV control after passive NAB immunization postinfection.** In order to evaluate the long-term effect on SIV replication of a single passive NAB immunization in the acute phase, we monitored animals for more than 1 year after SIVmac239 challenge (Fig. 1). Five NAB-immunized rhesus macaques and six unimmunized controls, including two animals that received control antibodies at week 1, were followed up. Of these, NAB-immunized macaque R03-011 and two unimmunized controls, R01-011 and R06-038, shared the MHC-I haplotype *90-010-Ie*, and NAB-immunized R06-023 and unimmunized R01-012 shared *90-010-Id*. We previously reported that a group of Burmese rhesus macaques possessing the MHC-I haplotype *90-120-Ia* mounted efficient Gag-specific CD8 $^{+}$  T-cell responses and showed vaccine-based SIV control (21, 29), but those animals were not included in the present study.

The plasma viral loads of both NAB-immunized and unimmunized macaques were similar at week 1, just before NAB administration (Fig. 1A). At week 2 postchallenge, i.e., 1 week after NAB administration, the geometric mean of plasma viral loads in NAB-immunized macaques was slightly lower than in unimmunized controls, but this difference did not achieve statistical significance. At week 8, however, the difference became significant, with lower plasma viral loads in NAB-immunized animals (Fig. 1A). Thereafter, the NAB-immunized macaques maintained significantly reduced viral loads for more than 1 year. In the chronic phase, plasma viral loads were less than  $1 \times 10^4$  copies/ml in all five NAB-immunized macaques and were even undetectable in three of them. NAB-immunized macaque R03-011, possessing the MHC-I haplotype *90-010-Ie*, contained SIV replication with undetectable viremia, whereas unimmunized macaques R01-011 and R06-038, which shared this haplotype, had high viral loads. The NAB-immunized macaque R06-023, with MHC-I haplotype *90-010-Id*, contained SIV replication, whereas unimmunized macaque R01-012, which shared the same haplotype, failed to control viremia. Peripheral CD4 $^{+}$  T-cell counts were maintained in the NAB-immunized macaques during the observation period (Fig. 1B).

We examined SIVmac239-specific neutralizing antibody responses by determining the end point plasma titers for inhibiting 10-TCID $_{50}$  virus replication on MT-4 cells (data not shown). In NAB-immunized macaques, NAB responses were

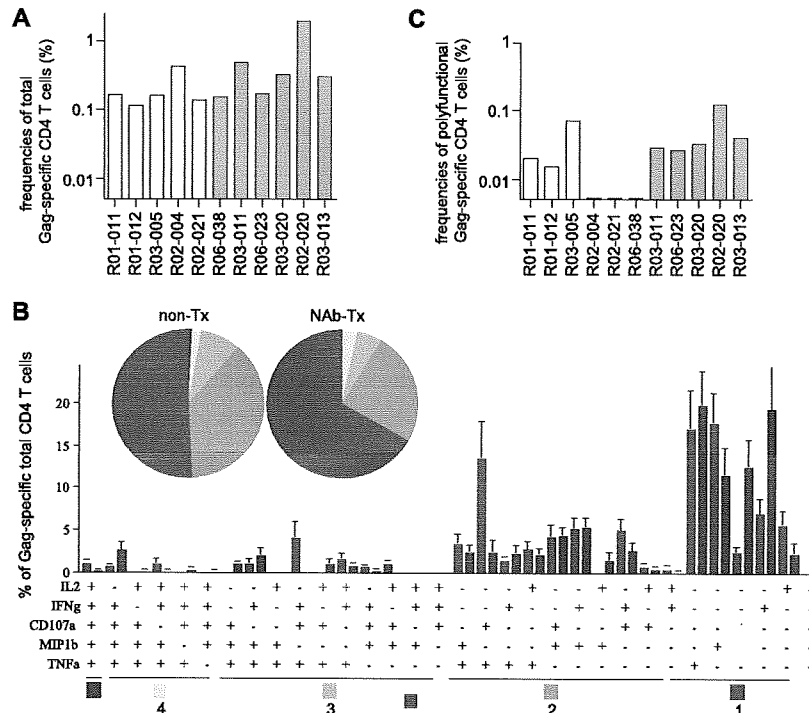


FIG. 4. Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the chronic phase. PBMCs around week 30 postchallenge were stimulated with p55, and specific induction of IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-2, MIP-1 $\beta$ , and CD107a in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells was examined. (A) Frequencies of total Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. (B) Percentages of cells exhibiting Gag-specific induction of single or multiple marker cytokines in total Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. See the legend to Fig. 2 for symbols. (C) Frequencies of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibiting Gag-specific induction of  $\geq 3$  marker cytokines in total CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. The frequencies in NAb-immunized macaques ( $n = 5$ ) were significantly higher than in unimmunized controls ( $n = 6$ ) ( $P = 0.046$ ).

detected at day 10 postchallenge but became undetectable within 1 week of passive NAb immunization, as described previously (50), implying that the infused NAbs were rapidly exhausted for virus clearance. None of the animals had detectable de novo NAb responses even around week 40 after challenge. In unimmunized controls, SIVmac239-specific NAb responses were also undetectable, except in one animal, R01-012, after week 30. Thus, passive NAb immunization 1 week after SIV challenge resulted in a transient period of NAb

detection, followed by sustained virus control in the absence of detectable NAb responses.

**Polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase in passively NAb-immunized macaques.** To investigate whether virus-specific T-cell responses were involved in this NAb-triggered SIV control, we first analyzed SIV Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase. We stimulated PBMCs obtained at week 2 with a recombinant SIV Gag p55 protein and analyzed Gag-specific induction of IFN- $\gamma$ ,

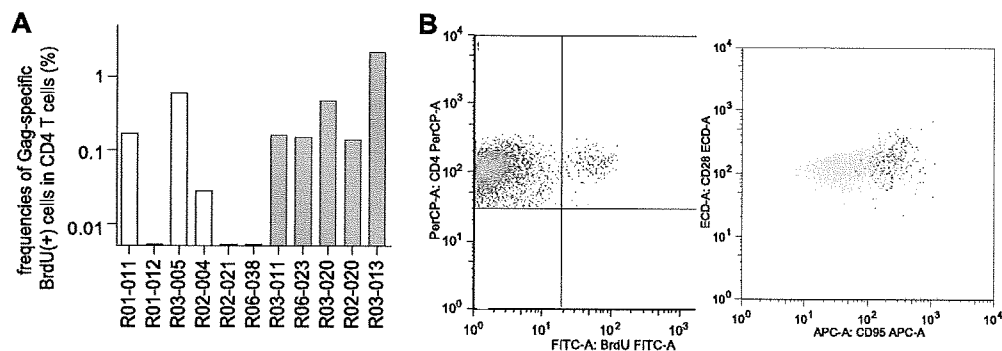


FIG. 5. Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell proliferative responses in the chronic phase. PBMCs around week 30 postchallenge were stimulated with p55, and specific uptake of BrdU in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells was examined. (A) Frequencies of Gag-specific BrdU<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in total CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. The frequencies in NAb-immunized macaques were significantly higher than in unimmunized controls ( $P = 0.042$ ). (B) A representative density plot (gated on CD3<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes) showing BrdU<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction after Gag stimulation (macaque R03-013). Most Gag-specific BrdU<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells gated in the left-hand plot were CD95<sup>+</sup> CD28<sup>+</sup> (indicated by red) in the right-hand plot gated on CD3<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes. FITC, fluorescein isothiocyanate; PerCP, peridinin chlorophyll protein.

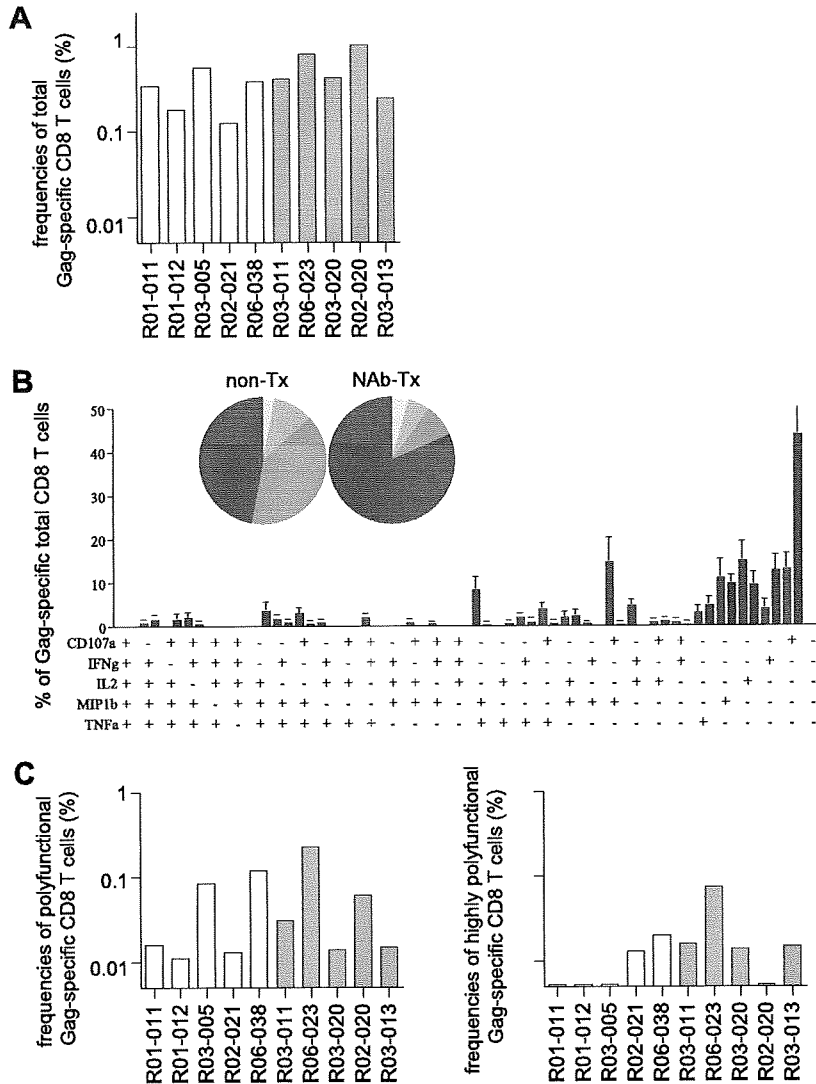


FIG. 6. Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase. PBMCs at week 2 were stimulated with p55, and specific induction of IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-2, MIP-1 $\beta$ , and CD107a in CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells was examined. (A) Frequencies of total Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. (B) Percentages of cells exhibiting Gag-specific induction of single or multiple marker cytokines in total Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. See the legend to Fig. 2 for symbols. (C) Frequencies of Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibiting Gag-specific induction of  $\geq 3$  marker cytokines (polyfunctional; left) or  $\geq 4$  marker cytokines (highly polyfunctional; right) in total CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells.

TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-2, and MIP-1 $\beta$  and surface mobilization of CD107a (a degranulation marker) in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (Fig. 2A) (14, 25, 41). The Gag-specific responses of each factor, IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-2, MIP-1 $\beta$ , and CD107a, in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells did not show significant differences between unimmunized and NAb-immunized animals (data not shown). We then analyzed these five factors to assess the polyfunctionality of virus-specific T cells and refer to them as marker cytokines in this study. No significant differences in the frequencies of total Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (i.e., CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibiting Gag-specific induction of one or more of the marker cytokines IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-2, MIP-1 $\beta$ , and CD107a) were observed between the two groups (Fig. 2B).

We examined the polyfunctionality of SIV Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, as defined by their multiplicity of marker cyto-

kines induced by Gag-specific stimulation (11, 41) (Fig. 2C). The mean percentage of cells producing  $\geq 3$  marker cytokines (Fig. 2C, sum of red, yellow, and green) in the Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell pool was more than 15% in NAb-immunized macaques but less than 3% in unimmunized controls. The frequencies of these polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells within the CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell pool were significantly higher in the immunized animals, with a solid difference ( $P = 0.008$  by  $t$  test) (Fig. 2D). Indeed, all the NAb-immunized macaques had higher frequencies of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells than any of the unimmunized controls, indicating that passive NAb immunization 1 week after SIV challenge resulted in rapid induction of Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells with higher polyfunctionality at week 2.

The polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies at

week 2 were inversely correlated with plasma viral loads at week 5 (Fig. 3). The inverse correlation, however, was not indicated with plasma viral loads at week 2. These results implicate rapidly induced polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in subsequent reduction of plasma viral loads in NAb-immunized macaques.

**Polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the chronic phase in NAb-immunized macaques.** We then examined SIV Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the chronic phase. Around week 30 after challenge, total Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies in NAb-immunized animals were similar to or, if anything, higher than those in unimmunized controls (Fig. 4A). The Gag-specific responses of each marker cytokine in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells showed no significant difference between the two groups (data not shown). The polyfunctionalities of these Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (the percentage of cells producing  $\geq 3$  marker cytokines) within the total Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell population in both groups were similar (Fig. 4B). However, the frequencies of these polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells as a fraction of total CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in NAb-immunized macaques were higher than in unimmunized controls (Fig. 4C).

We also examined the SIV Gag-specific proliferative responses of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells around week 30 by measurement of BrdU uptake after Gag-specific stimulation (Fig. 5A). This revealed higher proliferative responses of Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in NAb-immunized macaques than in unimmunized controls. Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell proliferative responses were detectable in all the NAb-immunized macaques but in only three of six unimmunized controls. Most of the BrdU<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells after Gag-specific stimulation were of the central memory (CD95<sup>+</sup> CD28<sup>+</sup>) phenotype (36) (Fig. 5B). These results suggest that NAb-immunized macaques had potent Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells with efficient proliferative ability in the chronic phase.

**CD8<sup>+</sup> cells with high anti-SIV efficacy in NAb-immunized macaques.** The above-mentioned results revealed higher frequencies of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in NAb-immunized macaques. We next analyzed Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase (Fig. 6). At week 2, total Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies were similar, and no clear difference in frequencies of Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells producing  $\geq 3$  or  $\geq 4$  marker cytokines was detected between the two groups.

We then examined, by *in vitro* viral-suppression assays (13, 27, 46, 51), whether the CD8<sup>+</sup> cells from these NAb-immunized macaques had the potential to control SIV replication more efficiently than those from the controls (Fig. 7). In this assay, CD8<sup>-</sup> target cells prepared by CD8-negative selection from PBMCs were infected with SIVmac239 and cocultured with effector CD8<sup>+</sup> cells prepared by CD8-positive selection from PBMCs at week 3. We obtained results from four NAb-immunized macaques and three unimmunized controls.

Three of four NAb-immunized macaques (R03-011, R03-020, and R03-013) showed more than 100-fold reduction in viral production at an E/T ratio of 1:4, although the remaining animal (R02-020) failed to show strong anti-SIV efficacy *in vitro*. Of the NAb-immunized animals, this individual R02-020 maintained the highest viral loads in the chronic phase. In contrast to CD8<sup>+</sup> cells from the majority of immunized ani-

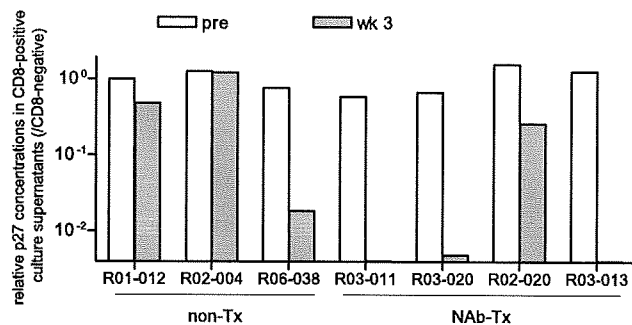


FIG. 7. Anti-SIV efficacy *in vitro* of CD8<sup>+</sup> cells. PBMC-derived CD8<sup>-</sup> (target) cells infected with SIVmac239 were cultured alone (no CD8) or cocultured with autologous PBMC-derived CD8<sup>+</sup> (effector) cells obtained prechallenge (pre) or at week 3 postchallenge (wk 3) at an E/T ratio of 1:4. The results were obtained from three unimmunized controls and four NAb-immunized macaques. The ratios of p27 concentrations in the culture supernatants after 8 days of coculture with pre-CD8<sup>+</sup> or week 3 CD8<sup>+</sup> cells to those without CD8<sup>+</sup> cells (CD8 negative) are shown. The coculture with either R03-011 week 3 CD8<sup>+</sup>, R03-020 week 3 CD8<sup>+</sup>, and R03-013 week 3 CD8<sup>+</sup> cells showed undetectable or marginal SIV p27 production after 8 days.

mals, CD8<sup>+</sup> cells from the unimmunized controls (R01-012, R02-004, and R06-038) showed weak anti-SIV efficacy. In fact, the reduction of virus production by CD8<sup>+</sup> cells from the unimmunized macaques R01-012 and R06-038 was less than 100-fold even in coculture at an E/T ratio of 1:1 (data not shown; not determined for R02-004). These results suggest that passive NAb immunization may facilitate the induction of potent CD8<sup>+</sup> cells possessing higher anti-SIV efficacy.

**Polyfunctional Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the chronic phase in NAb-immunized macaques.** We next examined SIV Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the chronic phase (Fig. 8). Around week 30 after challenge, the geometric means of total Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies in NAb-immunized animals were higher than in unimmunized controls, but this difference did not achieve statistical significance. In particular, NAb-immunized macaques showed significantly higher levels of Gag-specific IFN- $\gamma$  responses in CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells (data not shown). There was no clear difference in polyfunctional Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses between the two groups. However, highly polyfunctional Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells producing  $\geq 4$  marker cytokines were detectable in all NAb-immunized macaques, and the frequencies of these highly polyfunctional Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the total CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell population were higher than in unimmunized controls.

## DISCUSSION

In our previous study (50), a single passive NAb immunization of rhesus macaques 1 week after SIVmac239 challenge resulted in significant reduction of set point viral loads. The present study has shown that this NAb-triggered virus control was maintained in the absence of detectable NAbs in the chronic phase. Remarkably, virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses with higher polyfunctionality were rapidly induced in NAb-immunized macaques. These results implicate more po-

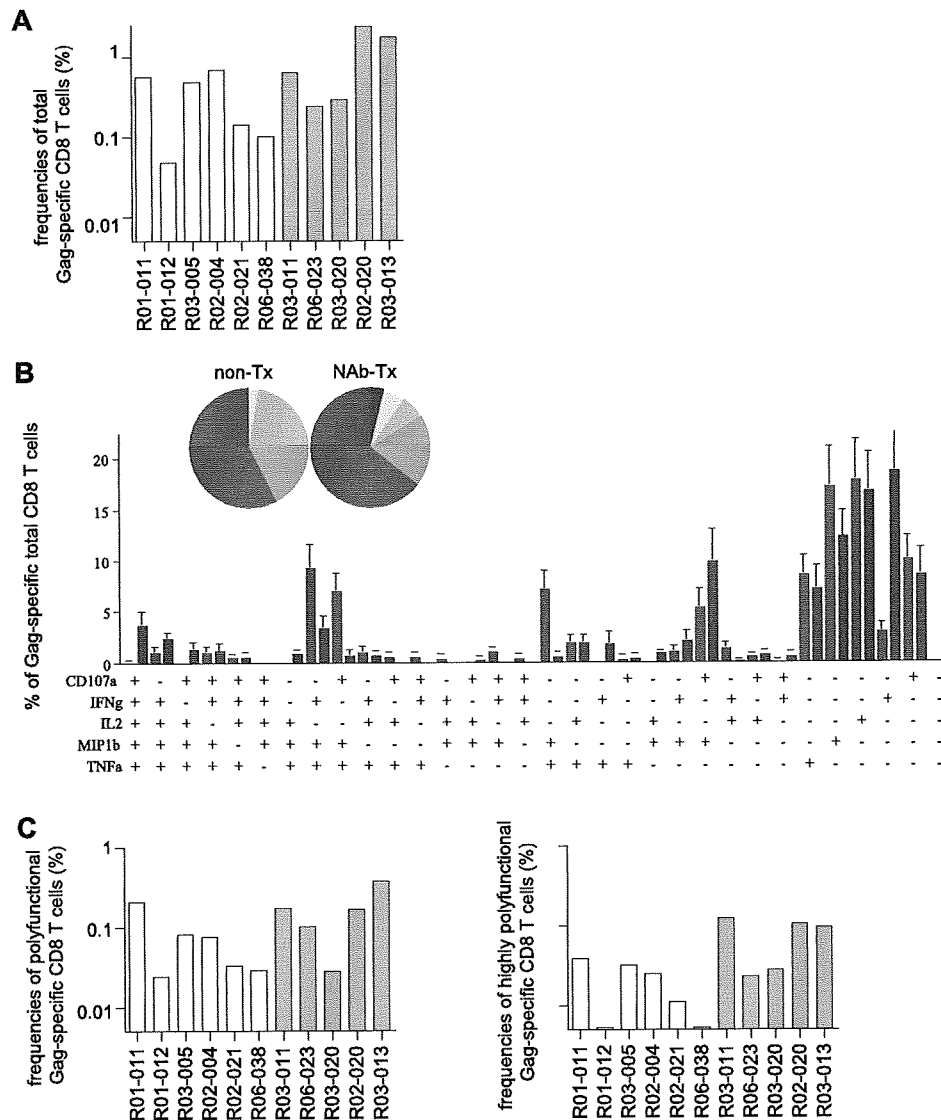


FIG. 8. Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the chronic phase. PBMCs around week 30 postchallenge were stimulated with p55, and specific induction of IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-2, MIP-1 $\beta$ , and CD107a in CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells was examined. (A) Frequencies of total Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. (B) Percentages of cells exhibiting Gag-specific induction of single or multiple marker cytokines in total Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. See the legend to Fig. 2 for symbols. (C) Frequencies of Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibiting Gag-specific induction of  $\geq 3$  marker cytokines (polyfunctional; left) or  $\geq 4$  marker cytokines (highly polyfunctional; right) in total CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. The highly polyfunctional Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies in NAb-immunized macaques were significantly higher than in unimmunized controls ( $P = 0.023$ ).

tent induction of functional virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in this NAb-triggered SIV control.

All the NAb-immunized macaques had higher frequencies of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells than any of the unimmunized controls at week 2, although the two groups possessed similar frequencies of total Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. This implies higher polyfunctionality of Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in the acute phase in NAb-immunized macaques than in unimmunized controls. HIV-1 is known to preferentially infect HIV-1-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (10); virus neutralization may therefore protect virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells from SIV infection. However, it remains unclear whether NABs preferentially protect polyfunctional virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T

cells. Our previous study suggested augmentation of the Fc-mediated uptake of NAb-virion complexes into dendritic cells following passive NAb immunization (50). This may enhance antigen presentation and induction of polyfunctional virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase. Thus, both NAb-mediated effects, i.e., enhancement of antigen presentation and protection of virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells from viral infection, may contribute to the induction of polyfunctional virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in the acute phase.

It is thought that potent virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses are important for the control of HIV-1/SIV replication (39). Recent studies analyzing the quality of T-cell responses suggested the possible involvement of polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup>



T-cell responses in the control of some viral infections (8, 11, 41). However, there has been no clear evidence indicating association of polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses with HIV-1/SIV control. These cells are themselves targets for viral infection and killing (10), and most natural HIV-1/SIV infections fail to show efficient induction of potent virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses (52). In the present study, passive NAb immunization of rhesus macaques 1 week after SIV infection resulted in the induction of significantly higher levels of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase, followed by SIV control at the set point in the absence of NAb responses. The polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies at week 2 were inversely correlated with plasma viral loads, not at week 2, but at week 5. These results indicate that NAb may facilitate the development and retention of polyfunctional virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the very early phase of HIV-1/SIV infection, contributing to subsequent virus control directly or indirectly. Thus, this is the first report documenting an association between polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase and subsequent SIV control.

Previous studies of the chronic phase of HIV-1 infections have indicated an association between strong HIV-1-specific proliferative CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses and HIV-1 control, as well as their impairment in HIV-1 infection with uncontrolled viremia (3, 17, 18, 32, 39). In the present study, compared to total Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies in the acute phase, those in the chronic phase were reduced in unimmunized controls, but NAb-immunized macaques maintained similar frequencies in the chronic phase. This difference may reflect virus control in NAb-immunized macaques and high plasma viremia in unimmunized controls. Our analyses of polyfunctional and proliferative responses suggest that these animals maintained functional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the chronic phase. This may be due to virus control and, conversely, may contribute to sustained virus control.

It has been indicated that virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses facilitate induction of functional virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses (19, 42, 44). Stimulation with peptides would be optimal for analysis of CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses, but in this study, our first priority was to analyze CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses, and cell samples were used for the analysis of responses after stimulation with a recombinant Gag p55 protein. Therefore, we obtained results on polyfunctional CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses after p55-specific stimulation but did not have enough cell samples for analyzing peptide-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase. In the acute phase, no significant enhancement of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses was detected after passive NAb immunization, but this does not exclude the possibility of functional CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction in NAb-immunized animals, which may be detected by optimal analysis. Indeed, the viral suppression assay showed that CD8<sup>+</sup> cells able to efficiently suppress SIV replication *in vitro* were induced in the acute phase in those NAb-immunized macaques that contained SIV replication *in vivo*. These highly effective anti-SIV CD8<sup>+</sup> cell responses, which may be affected not only by CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell polyfunctionality, but also by several other factors, are thus likely to be involved in NAb-triggered containment of SIV replication. Our analyses in the chronic phase indicated higher frequencies of highly polyfunctional Gag-spe-

cific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in NAb-immunized macaques, consistent with the previously reported observation in HIV-1-infected nonprogressors (4).

Taken together, the present study indicates that passive NAb immunization of rhesus macaques in the acute phase may be able to trigger rapid induction of polyfunctional Gag-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses, followed by sustained SIV control in the absence of NAb responses in the chronic phase. These results highlight the importance of the synergy between NAb and T-cell responses in primary virus control, implying that the absence of potent NAb responses in the acute phase of HIV-1/SIV infection may be responsible for failure to control persistent viral replication.

Finally, induction of potent NAb responses is believed to be a promising strategy for AIDS vaccine development. While prechallenge passive NAb immunization studies have previously indicated the possibility of sterile protection against immunodeficiency virus infection in macaques, several studies have suggested difficulty in inducing high levels of NAb responses that are sufficient for sterile protection (16, 28, 35, 43, 48). Our results imply that prophylactic vaccination that elicits NAb responses, even if it does not achieve sterile protection, may contribute to HIV-1/SIV control by secondary NAb responses facilitating functional T-cell induction after viral exposure. Thus, this study indicates a potential for HIV-1/SIV control by synergy between NAb and T-cell responses, providing insights into the development of a prophylactic AIDS vaccine.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by grants from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology; a grant from the Japan Health Sciences Foundation; and grants from the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare of Japan.

The animal experiments were conducted through the Cooperative Research Program in Tsukuba Primate Research Center, National Institute of Biomedical Innovation, with the help of the Corporation for Production and Research of Laboratory Primates. We thank H. Akari, F. Ono, K. Komatsuzaki, A. Hiyaoka, H. Ogawa, K. Oto, K. Ishikawa, T. Nakasone, and H. Igarashi for assistance with the animal experiments and M. Miyazawa, M. Yasunami, T. Naruse, and A. Kimura for determining MHC-I haplotypes. We also thank M. Roederer for providing the PESTLE and SPICE software and V. Appay for his technical support and helpful suggestions on analysis of Gag-specific T-cell responses.

#### REFERENCES

- Almeida, J. R., D. A. Price, L. Papagno, Z. A. Arkoub, D. Sauce, E. Bornstein, T. E. Asher, A. Samri, A. Schnuriger, I. Theodorou, D. Costagliola, C. Rouzioux, H. Agut, A. G. Marcelin, D. Douek, B. Autran, and V. Appay. 2007. Superior control of HIV-1 replication by CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells is reflected by their avidity, polyfunctionality, and clonal turnover. *J. Exp. Med.* 204:2473–2485.
- Arguello, J. R., A. M. Little, E. Bohan, J. M. Goldman, S. G. Marsh, and J. A. Madrigal. 1998. High resolution HLA class I typing by reference strand mediated conformation analysis (RSCA). *Tissue Antigens* 52:57–66.
- Autran, B., G. Carcelain, T. S. Li, C. Blanc, D. Mathez, R. Tubiana, C. Katlama, P. Debre, and J. Leibowitch. 1997. Positive effects of combined antiretroviral therapy on CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell homeostasis and function in advanced HIV disease. *Science* 277:112–116.
- Betts, M. R., M. C. Nason, S. M. West, S. C. De Rosa, S. A. Migueles, J. Abraham, M. M. Lederman, J. M. Benito, P. A. Goepfert, M. Connors, M. Roederer, and R. A. Koup. 2006. HIV nonprogressors preferentially maintain highly functional HIV-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. *Blood* 107:4781–4789.
- Borrow, P., H. Lewicki, B. H. Hahn, G. M. Shaw, and M. B. Oldstone. 1994. Virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic T-lymphocyte activity associated with control of viremia in primary human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection. *J. Virol.* 68:6103–6110.
- Brander, C., and B. D. Walker. 1999. T lymphocyte responses in HIV-1

- infection: implication for vaccine development. *Curr. Opin. Immunol.* 11: 451–459.
7. Burton, D. R., R. C. Desrosiers, R. W. Doms, W. C. Koff, P. D. Kwong, J. P. Moore, G. J. Nabel, J. Sodroski, I. A. Wilson, and R. T. Wyatt. 2004. HIV vaccine design and the neutralizing antibody problem. *Nat. Immunol.* 5:233–236.
  8. Casazza, J. P., M. R. Betts, D. A. Price, M. L. Precopio, L. E. Ruff, J. M. Brechley, B. J. Hill, M. Roederer, D. C. Douek, and R. A. Koup. 2006. Acquisition of direct antiviral effector functions by CMV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes with cellular maturation. *J. Exp. Med.* 203:2865–2877.
  9. Combadiere, B., A. Boissonnas, G. Carcelain, E. Lefranc, A. Samri, F. Bricaire, P. Debre, and B. Autran. 2004. Distinct time effects of vaccination on long-term proliferative and IFN-gamma-producing T cell memory to smallpox in humans. *J. Exp. Med.* 199:1585–1593.
  10. Douek, D. C., J. M. Brechley, M. R. Betts, D. R. Ambrozak, B. J. Hill, Y. Okamoto, J. P. Casazza, J. Kuruppu, K. Kunstman, S. Wolinsky, Z. Grossman, M. Dybul, A. Oxenius, D. A. Price, M. Connors, and R. A. Koup. 2002. HIV preferentially infects HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. *Nature* 417:95–98.
  11. Duvall, M. G., M. L. Precopio, D. A. Ambrozak, A. Jaye, A. J. McMichael, H. C. Whittle, M. Roederer, S. L. Rowland-Jones, and R. A. Koup. 2008. Polyfunctional T cell responses are a hallmark of HIV-2 infection. *Eur. J. Immunol.* 38:350–363.
  12. Gauduin, M. C., A. Kaur, S. Ahmad, T. Yilma, J. D. Lifson, and R. P. Johnson. 2004. Optimization of intracellular cytokine staining for the quantitation of antigen-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell responses in rhesus macaques. *J. Immunol. Methods* 288:61–79.
  13. Gauduin, M. C., R. L. Glickman, R. Means, and R. P. Johnson. 1998. Inhibition of simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) replication by CD8<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes from macaques immunized with live attenuated SIV. *J. Virol.* 72:6315–6324.
  14. Gauduin, M. C., Y. Yu, A. Barabas, A. Carville, M. Piatak, J. D. Lifson, R. C. Desrosiers, and R. P. Johnson. 2006. Induction of a virus-specific effector-memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell response by attenuated SIV infection. *J. Exp. Med.* 203:2661–2672.
  15. Goulder, P. J., and D. I. Watkins. 2004. HIV and SIV CTL escape: implications for vaccine design. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 4:630–640.
  16. Haigwood, N. L., A. Watson, W. F. Sutton, J. McClure, A. Lewis, J. Ranchalis, B. Travis, G. Voss, N. L. Letvin, S. L. Hu, V. M. Hirsch, and P. R. Johnson. 1996. Passive immune globulin therapy in the SIV/macaque model: early intervention can alter disease profile. *Immunol. Lett.* 51:107–114.
  17. Harari, A., S. Petitpierre, F. Vellelian, and G. Pantaleo. 2004. Skewed representation of functionally distinct populations of virus-specific CD4 T cells in HIV-1-infected subjects with progressive disease: changes after antiretroviral therapy. *Blood* 103:966–972.
  18. Iyasere, C., J. C. Tilton, A. J. Johnson, S. Younes, B. Yassine-Diab, R. P. Sekaly, W. W. Kwok, S. A. Migueles, A. C. Laborico, W. L. Shupert, C. W. Hallahan, R. T. Davey, Jr., M. Dybul, S. Vogel, J. Metcalf, and M. Connors. 2003. Diminished proliferation of human immunodeficiency virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells is associated with diminished interleukin-2 (IL-2) production and is recovered by exogenous IL-2. *J. Virol.* 77:10900–10909.
  19. Janssen, E. M., E. E. Lemmens, T. Wolfe, U. Christen, M. G. von Herrath, and S. P. Schoenberger. 2003. CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells are required for secondary expansion and memory in CD8<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes. *Nature* 421:852–856.
  20. Jin, X., D. E. Bauer, S. E. Tuttleton, S. Lewin, A. Gettje, J. Blanchard, C. E. Irwin, J. T. Safrin, J. Mittler, L. Weinberger, L. G. Kostrikis, L. Zhang, A. S. Perelson, and D. D. Ho. 1999. Dramatic rise in plasma viremia after CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell depletion in simian immunodeficiency virus-infected macaques. *J. Exp. Med.* 189:991–998.
  21. Kawada, M., T. Tsukamoto, H. Yamamoto, N. Iwamoto, K. Kurihara, A. Takeda, C. Moriya, H. Takeuchi, H. Akari, and T. Matano. 2008. Gag-specific cytotoxic T lymphocyte-based control of primary simian immunodeficiency virus replication in a vaccine trial. *J. Virol.* 82:10199–10206.
  22. Kestler, H. W., III, D. J. Ringler, K. Mori, D. L. Panicali, P. K. Sehgal, M. D. Daniel, and R. C. Desrosiers. 1991. Importance of the *nef* gene for maintenance of high virus loads and for development of AIDS. *Cell* 65:651–662.
  23. Koup, R. A., J. T. Safrin, Y. Cao, C. A. Andrews, G. McLeod, W. Borkowsky, C. Farthing, and D. D. Ho. 1994. Temporal association of cellular immune responses with the initial control of viremia in primary human immunodeficiency virus type 1 syndrome. *J. Virol.* 68:4650–4655.
  24. Kwong, P. D., M. L. Doyle, D. J. Casper, C. Cicala, S. A. Leavitt, S. Majeed, T. D. Steenbeke, M. Ventura, I. Chaiken, M. Fung, H. Katinger, P. W. Parren, J. Robinson, D. Van Ryk, L. Wang, D. R. Burton, E. Freire, R. Wyatt, J. Sodroski, W. A. Hendrickson, and J. Arthos. 2002. HIV-1 evades antibody-mediated neutralization through conformational masking of receptor-binding sites. *Nature* 420:678–682.
  25. Lamoreaux, L., M. Roederer, and R. Koup. 2006. Intracellular cytokine optimization and standard operating procedure. *Nat. Protoc.* 1:1507–1516.
  26. Li, Q., L. Duan, J. D. Estes, Z. M. Ma, T. Rourke, Y. Wang, C. Reilly, J. Carlis, C. J. Miller, and A. T. Haase. 2005. Peak SIV replication in resting memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells depletes gut lamina propria CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. *Nature* 434:1148–1152.
  27. Loffredo, J. T., E. G. Rakasz, J. P. Giraldo, S. P. Spencer, K. K. Grafton, S. R. Martin, G. Napoe, L. J. Yant, N. A. Wilson, and D. I. Watkins. 2005. Tat<sub>28–35</sub>SL8-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes are more effective than Gag<sub>181–189</sub>CM9-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes at suppressing simian immunodeficiency virus replication in a functional in vitro assay. *J. Virol.* 79:14986–14991.
  28. Mascola, J. R., G. Stiegler, T. C. VanCott, H. Katinger, C. B. Carpenter, C. E. Hanson, H. Beary, D. Hayes, S. S. Frankel, D. L. Birx, and M. G. Lewis. 2000. Protection of macaques against vaginal transmission of a pathogenic HIV-1/SIV chimeric virus by passive infusion of neutralizing antibodies. *Nat. Med.* 6:207–210.
  29. Matano, T., M. Kobayashi, H. Igarashi, A. Takeda, H. Nakamura, M. Kano, C. Sugimoto, K. Mori, A. Iida, T. Hirata, M. Hasegawa, T. Yuasa, M. Miyazawa, Y. Takahashi, M. Yasunami, A. Kimura, D. H. O'Connor, D. I. Watkins, and Y. Nagai. 2004. Cytotoxic T lymphocyte-based control of simian immunodeficiency virus replication in a preclinical AIDS vaccine trial. *J. Exp. Med.* 199:1709–1718.
  30. Matano, T., R. Shibata, C. Siemon, M. Connors, H. C. Lane, and M. A. Martin. 1998. Administration of an anti-CD8 monoclonal antibody interferes with the clearance of chimeric simian/human immunodeficiency virus during primary infections of rhesus macaques. *J. Virol.* 72:164–169.
  31. Mattapallil, J. J., D. C. Douek, B. Hill, Y. Nishimura, M. A. Martin, and M. Roederer. 2005. Massive infection and loss of memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in multiple tissues during acute SIV infection. *Nature* 434:1093–1097.
  32. McNeil, A. C., W. L. Shupert, C. A. Iyasere, C. W. Hallahan, J. A. Mican, R. T. Davey, Jr., and M. Connors. 2001. High-level HIV-1 viremia suppresses viral antigen-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell proliferation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 98:13878–13883.
  33. National Institute of Infectious Diseases. 2007. Guides for animal experiments performed at National Institute of Infectious Diseases. National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan. (In Japanese.)
  34. Nishimura, Y., T. Igarashi, N. L. Haigwood, R. Sadjadpour, O. K. Donau, C. Buckler, R. J. Plishka, A. Buckler-White, and M. A. Martin. 2003. Transfer of neutralizing IgG to macaques 6 h but not 24 h after SHIV infection confers sterilizing protection: implications for HIV-1 vaccine development. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 100:15131–15136.
  35. Parren, P. W., P. A. Marx, A. J. Hessel, A. Luckay, J. Harouse, C. Cheng-Mayer, J. P. Moore, and D. R. Burton. 2001. Antibody protects macaques against vaginal challenge with a pathogenic R5 simian/human immunodeficiency virus at serum levels giving complete neutralization in vitro. *J. Virol.* 75:8340–8347.
  36. Pitcher, C. J., S. I. Hagen, J. M. Walker, R. Lum, B. L. Mitchell, V. C. Maino, M. K. Axthelm, and L. J. Picker. 2004. Development and homeostasis of T cell memory in rhesus macaques. *J. Immunol.* 168:29–43.
  37. Poignard, P., R. Sabbe, G. R. Picchio, M. Wang, R. J. Gulizia, H. Katinger, P. W. Parren, D. E. Mosier, and D. R. Burton. 1999. Neutralizing antibodies have limited effects on the control of established HIV-1 infection in vivo. *Immunity* 10:431–438.
  38. Richman, D. D., T. Wrin, S. J. Little, and C. J. Petropoulos. 2003. Rapid evolution of the neutralizing antibody response to HIV type 1 infection. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 100:4144–4149.
  39. Rosenberg, E. S., J. M. Billingsley, A. M. Caliendo, S. L. Boswell, P. E. Sax, S. A. Kalams, and B. D. Walker. 1997. Vigorous HIV-1-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell responses associated with control of viremia. *Science* 278:1447–1450.
  40. Schmitz, J. E., M. J. Kuroda, S. Santra, V. G. Sasseville, M. A. Simon, M. A. Lifton, P. Racz, K. Tenner-Racz, M. Dalesandro, B. J. Scallan, J. Ghayeb, M. A. Forman, D. C. Montefiori, E. P. Rieber, N. L. Letvin, and K. A. Reimann. 1999. Control of viremia in simian immunodeficiency virus infection by CD8<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes. *Science* 283:857–860.
  41. Seder, R. A., P. A. Darragh, and M. Roederer. 2008. T-cell quality in memory and protection: implications for vaccine design. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 8:247–258.
  42. Shedlock, D. J., and H. Shen. 2003. Requirement for CD4 T cell help in generating functional CD8 T cell memory. *Science* 300:337–339.
  43. Shibata, R., T. Igarashi, N. Haigwood, A. Buckler-White, R. Ogert, W. Ross, R. Willey, M. W. Cho, and M. A. Martin. 1999. Neutralizing antibody directed against the HIV-1 envelope glycoprotein can completely block HIV-1/SIV chimeric virus infections of macaque monkeys. *Nat. Med.* 5:204–210.
  44. Sun, J. C., and M. J. Bevan. 2003. Defective CD8 T cell memory following acute infection without CD4 T cell help. *Science* 300:339–342.
  45. Trkola, A., H. Kuster, P. Rusert, B. Joos, M. Fischer, C. Leemann, A. Manrique, M. Huber, M. Rehr, A. Oxenius, R. Weber, G. Stiegler, B. Veerar, H. Katinger, L. Aceto, and H. F. Günthard. 2005. Delay of HIV-1 rebound after cessation of antiretroviral therapy through passive transfer of human neutralizing antibodies. *Nat. Med.* 11:615–622.
  46. Tsukamoto, T., M. Yuasa, H. Yamamoto, M. Kawada, A. Takeda, H. Igarashi, and T. Matano. 2007. Induction of CD8<sup>+</sup> cells able to suppress CCR5-tropic simian immunodeficiency virus SIVmac239 replication by controlled infection of CXCR4-tropic simian-human immunodeficiency virus in vaccinated rhesus macaques. *J. Virol.* 81:11640–11649.
  47. Veazey, R. S., I. C. Tham, K. G. Mansfield, M. DeMaria, A. E. Forand, D. E.

- Shvetz, L. V. Chalifoux, P. K. Sehgal, and A. A. Lackner. 2000. Identifying the target cell in primary simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) infection: highly activated memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells are rapidly eliminated in early SIV infection in vivo. *J. Virol.* 74:57–64.
48. Veazey, R. S., R. J. Shattock, M. Pope, J. C. Kirijan, J. Jones, Q. Hu, T. Ketas, P. A. Marx, P. J. Klasse, D. R. Burton, and J. P. Moore. 2003. Prevention of virus transmission to macaque monkeys by a vaginally applied monoclonal antibody to HIV-1 gp120. *Nat. Med.* 9:343–346.
49. Wei, X., J. M. Decker, S. Wang, H. Hui, J. C. Kappes, X. Wu, J. F. Salazar-Gonzalez, M. G. Salazar, J. M. Kilby, M. S. Saag, N. L. Komarova, M. A. Nowak, B. H. Hahn, P. D. Kwong, and G. M. Shaw. 2003. Antibody neutralization and escape by HIV-1. *Nature* 422:307–312.
50. Yamamoto, H., M. Kawada, A. Takeda, H. Igarashi, and T. Matano. 2007. Post-infection immunodeficiency virus control by neutralizing antibodies. *PLoS ONE* 2:e540.
51. Yang, O. O., S. A. Kalams, A. Trocha, H. Cao, A. Luster, R. P. Johnson, and B. D. Walker. 1997. Suppression of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 replication by CD8<sup>+</sup> cells: evidence for HLA class I-restricted triggering of cytolytic and noncytolytic mechanisms. *J. Virol.* 71:3120–3128.
52. Zaunders, J. J., M. L. Munier, D. E. Kaufmann, S. Ip, P. Grey, D. Smith, T. Ramacciotti, D. Quan, R. Finlayson, J. Kaldor, E. S. Rosenberg, B. D. Walker, D. A. Cooper, and A. D. Kelleher. 2005. Early proliferation of CCR5<sup>+</sup> CD38<sup>+++</sup> antigen-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> Th1 effector cells during primary HIV-1 infection. *Blood* 106:1660–1667.

## Impact of Cytotoxic-T-Lymphocyte Memory Induction without Virus-Specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-Cell Help on Control of a Simian Immunodeficiency Virus Challenge in Rhesus Macaques<sup>∇</sup>

Tetsuo Tsukamoto,<sup>1</sup> Akiko Takeda,<sup>1</sup> Takuya Yamamoto,<sup>2</sup> Hiroyuki Yamamoto,<sup>1</sup> Miki Kawada,<sup>1</sup> and Tetsuro Matano<sup>1,3,4\*</sup>

*International Research Center for Infectious Diseases, The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan<sup>1</sup>; Department of Immunology, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan<sup>2</sup>; AIDS Research Center, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan<sup>3</sup>; and Tsukuba Primate Research Center, National Institute of Biomedical Innovation, Tsukuba 305-0843, Japan<sup>4</sup>*

Received 2 June 2009/Accepted 29 June 2009

Despite many efforts to develop AIDS vaccines eliciting virus-specific T-cell responses, whether induction of these memory T cells by vaccination before human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) exposure can actually contribute to effective T-cell responses postinfection remains unclear. In particular, induction of HIV-specific memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells may increase the target cell pool for HIV infection because the virus preferentially infects HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. However, virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> helper T-cell responses are thought to be important for functional CD8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic-T-lymphocyte (CTL) induction in HIV infection, and it has remained unknown whether HIV-specific memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells induced by vaccination without HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help can exert effective responses after virus exposure. Here we show the impact of CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell memory induction without virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help on the control of a simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) challenge in rhesus macaques. We developed a prophylactic vaccine by using a Sendai virus (SeV) vector expressing a single SIV Gag<sub>241-249</sub> CTL epitope fused with enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP). Vaccination resulted in induction of SeV-EGFP-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell and Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses. After a SIV challenge, the vaccinees showed dominant Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses with higher effector memory frequencies in the acute phase and exhibited significantly reduced viral loads. These results demonstrate that virus-specific memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells induced by vaccination without virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help could indeed facilitate SIV control after virus exposure, indicating the benefit of prophylactic vaccination eliciting virus-specific CTL memory with non-virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses for HIV control.

Virus-specific T-cell responses are crucial for controlling human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) replication (3, 4, 12, 20, 28, 36, 37). Therefore, a great deal of effort has been exerted to develop AIDS vaccines eliciting virus-specific T-cell responses (23, 27, 30, 47), but whether this approach actually results in HIV control remains unclear (1, 6). It is important to determine which T-cell responses need to be induced by prophylactic vaccination for HIV control after virus exposure.

Because HIV preferentially infects HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (5), induction of HIV-specific memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells by vaccination may increase the target cell pool for HIV infection and could enhance viral replication (42). However, CD4<sup>+</sup> helper T-cell responses are important for functional CD8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic-T-lymphocyte (CTL) induction (11, 40, 43, 46), and it has remained unknown whether HIV-specific memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells induced by vaccination with non-virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help (but without HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help) can exert effective responses after virus exposure. Indeed, the real

impact of prophylactic induction of CTL memory itself on HIV replication has not been well documented thus far.

We previously developed a prophylactic AIDS vaccine consisting of DNA priming followed by boosting with a recombinant Sendai virus (SeV) vector expressing SIVmac239 Gag (26). Evaluation of this vaccine's efficacy against a SIVmac239 challenge in Burmese rhesus macaques showed that some vaccinees contained SIV replication whereas unvaccinated animals developed AIDS (15, 27). In particular, vaccination consistently resulted in control of SIV replication in those animals possessing the major histocompatibility complex class I (MHC-I) haplotype *90-120-Ia*. Gag<sub>206-216</sub> (IINEEAADWDL) and Gag<sub>241-249</sub> (SSVDEQIQW) epitope-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses were shown to be involved in SIV control in these vaccinated macaques (14, 16).

In the present study, focusing on CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses directed against one of these epitopes, we have evaluated the efficacy of a vaccine expressing the Gag<sub>241-249</sub> epitope fused with enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) against a SIVmac239 challenge in *90-120-Ia*-positive rhesus macaques. The animals exhibited this single-epitope-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell response and SeV-EGFP-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses after vaccination and showed rapid, dominant induction of potent secondary Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses after a SIV challenge. Plasma viral loads in these vaccinees were significantly reduced compared to those of naive controls. These results indicate that induction of CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell memory without

\* Corresponding author. Mailing address: International Research Center for Infectious Diseases, The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, 4-6-1 Shirokanedai, Minato-ku, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan. Phone: 81-3-6409-2078. Fax: 81-3-6409-2076. E-mail: matano@ims.u-tokyo.ac.jp.

<sup>∇</sup> Published ahead of print on 8 July 2009.

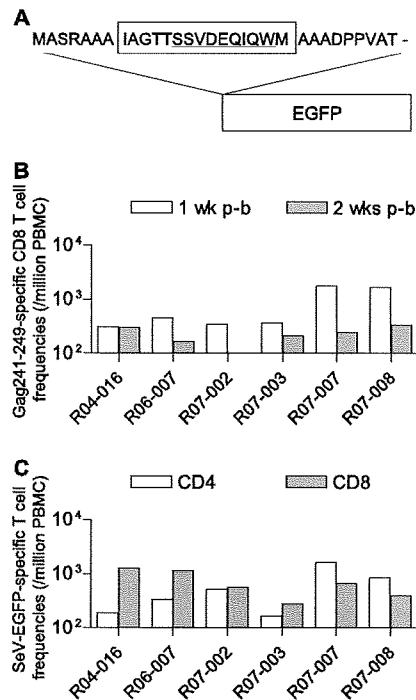


FIG. 1. Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction by prophylactic vaccination. (A) Schema of the cDNA construct encoding the Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP fusion protein. A DNA fragment that encodes a 31-mer peptide including the Gag<sub>236-250</sub> sequence was introduced into the 5' end of the EGFP cDNA. (B) Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies 1 (open boxes) and 2 weeks (closed boxes) after F(-)SeV-Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP boosting in group III macaques. (C) SeV-EGFP-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> (open boxes) or CD8<sup>+</sup> (closed boxes) T-cell frequencies 2 weeks after F(-)SeV-Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP boosting in group III macaques. p-b, postboost.

virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help by prophylactic vaccination can result in effective CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses after virus exposure.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Animal experiments.** Burmese rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*) possessing the MHC-I haplotype *90-120-1a* were divided into three groups: unvaccinated group I ( $n = 6$ ), control-vaccinated group II ( $n = 6$ ), and Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-vaccinated group III ( $n = 6$ ). The MHC-I haplotype was determined by reference strand-mediated conformation analysis as described previously (2, 27, 44). Macaque R06-019, administered nonspecific immunoglobulin G 1 week after a SIV challenge, and previously reported macaque R02-007 (15) were included in group I. pGag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP-N1 DNA expressing a Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP fusion protein was constructed from pEGFP-N1 DNA (BD, Tokyo, Japan). The fusion protein was designed to have 31 amino acids including SIVmac239 Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-sequences (IAGTTSSVDEIQIWM) added to the amino-terminal portion of EGFP (Fig. 1A). The group III macaques received 5 mg of pGag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP-N1 DNA intramuscularly and 6 weeks later received a single intranasal boost with  $6 \times 10^9$  cell infectious units of F deletion-containing, replication-defective SeV (24) expressing the Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP fusion protein (F[-]SeV-Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP). The group II macaques were primed with pEGFP-N1 DNA and boosted with F(-)SeV-EGFP instead. Approximately 3 months after the boost, these animals and the unvaccinated group I animals were challenged intravenously with 1,000 50% tissue culture infective doses of SIVmac239 (17). All animals were maintained in accordance with the guidelines for animal experiments performed at the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (32).

**Analysis of virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses.** We measured virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell levels by flow cytometric analysis of gamma interferon (IFN- $\gamma$ ) induction after specific stimulation as described previously (15, 27). In brief, peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were cocultured with autologous herpesvirus papio-immortalized B-lymphoblastoid cell lines pulsed with

1  $\mu$ M SIVmac239 Gag<sub>241-249</sub> or Gag<sub>206-216</sub> peptides for Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific or Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific stimulation. Alternatively, PBMCs were cocultured with B-lymphoblastoid cell lines infected with vesicular stomatitis virus G protein-pseudotyped SIVGPI for SIV-specific stimulation. The pseudotyped virus was obtained by cotransfection of COS-1 cells with a vesicular stomatitis virus G protein expression plasmid and *env* and *nef* deletion-containing simian-human immunodeficiency virus molecular clone (SIVGPI) DNA (26, 41). Intracellular IFN- $\gamma$  staining was performed with a Cytofix/Cytoperm kit (BD) and fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated anti-human CD4, peridinin chlorophyll protein-conjugated anti-human CD8, allophycocyanin (APC)-conjugated anti-human CD3, and phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated anti-human IFN- $\gamma$  monoclonal antibodies (BD). Specific T-cell levels were calculated by subtracting nonspecific IFN- $\gamma$ <sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies from those after peptide-specific or SIV-specific stimulation. Specific T-cell levels lower than 100 per million PBMCs were considered negative.

**Analysis of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific cytolytic CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses.** We analyzed Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific induction of IFN- $\gamma$  and CD107a in CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. PBMCs were stained with custom-made, PE-conjugated Gag<sub>241-249</sub> epitope-MamuA\*90120-5 tetrameric complexes, Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-A\*90120-5 tetramers (Medical and Biological Laboratories Co. Ltd., Nagoya, Japan) (45), for 15 min at 37°C and subsequently incubated with anti-human CD107a antibody (BD) for 6 h in the absence or presence of 1  $\mu$ M Gag<sub>241-249</sub> peptide for unstimulated controls or Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific stimulation. In both cultures, anti-human CD28 and anti-human CD49d antibodies (5  $\mu$ g/ml) (BD) were added for costimulation and monensin (BD) and brefeldin A (Sigma-Aldrich, Tokyo, Japan) were used for inhibition of cytokine secretion. Immunostaining was performed with a Cytofix/Cytoperm kit and the following monoclonal antibodies: fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated anti-human perforin (MABTECH), peridinin chlorophyll protein-conjugated anti-human CD4 (BD), APC-conjugated anti-human granzyme B (Invitrogen, Tokyo, Japan), PE-cyanine 7 (PE-Cy7)-conjugated anti-human IFN- $\gamma$  (BD), APC-Cy7-conjugated anti-human CD3 (BD), energy-coupled-dye-conjugated anti-human CD69 (Beckman Coulter, Tokyo, Japan), Alexa700-conjugated anti-human CD8 (BD), and anti-human CD107a conjugated with Pacific Blue with a Zeon mouse immunoglobulin G1 labeling kit (Invitrogen). Flow cytometric analysis was performed with the FACSSaria system (BD). The data were analyzed with FlowJo (version 8.2; TreeStar Inc., Ashland, OR), FACSDiva (BD), PESTLE (version 1.5.4), and SPICE (version 4.1.6) software.

**Statistical analysis.** Statistical analysis of plasma viral loads in the acute phase (at the peak and week 5) was performed with R version 2.7.1 (R Development Core Team; <http://www.R-project.org/>). Data were log transformed, and a two-tailed one-way analysis of variance, followed by the Shaffer sequentially rejective method of multiple-comparison analysis (39), was performed to estimate differences among groups I, II, and III with overall significance levels set to  $\alpha = 0.05$  (two tailed). Statistical analysis of set point plasma viral loads was performed by the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test with the sequentially rejective pairwise Mann-Whitney exact test, because we did not assume residual normality and homoscedasticity in set point viral loads, which were mostly below the lower limit of detection in group III animals. Antigen-specific T-cell frequencies were log transformed and compared by unpaired two-tailed *t* test with significance levels set at  $P < 0.05$ , and correlation was analyzed by using Prism software version 4.03 (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA).

#### RESULTS

**Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction following prophylactic vaccination.** Eighteen Burmese rhesus macaques possessing MHC-I haplotype *90-120-1a* were divided into three groups of six animals each (Table 1). Group I received no vaccination, group II received a control vaccine, and group III received a vaccine eliciting Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses. We refer to groups I and II as naive controls in the present study. We constructed a plasmid DNA (pGag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP-N1) and an F deletion-containing SeV (F[-]SeV-Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP) vector both expressing an SIVmac239 Gag<sub>236-250</sub> (IAGTTSSVDEIQIWM)-EGFP fusion protein to be used for group III vaccination (Fig. 1A). SeV proteins and EGFP have no amino acid sequence identity with SIVmac239. These group III animals received a single intramuscular pGag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP DNA injection, followed by a single intra-

TABLE 1. Macaques used in this study

Group	Animal identification codes	Vaccination <sup>a</sup>
I	R02-007, R06-037, R07-001, R07-004, R07-009, R06-019	None
II	R02-008, R05-026, R06-004, R06-014, R06-040, R07-006	Control vaccination [pEGFP-N1 DNA prime, F(-)SeV-EGFP boost]
III	R04-016, R06-007, R07-002, R07-003, R07-007, R07-008	Gag <sub>241-249</sub> -specific vaccination [pGag <sub>236-250</sub> -EGFP-N1 DNA prime, F(-)SeV-Gag <sub>236-250</sub> -EGFP boost]

<sup>a</sup> All animals were challenged with SIVmac239.

nasal boost with the F(-)SeV-Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP vector. Group II animals were administered pEGFP-N1 DNA and the F(-)SeV-EGFP vector, both expressing EGFP instead of Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP, as a control vaccine.

We measured the antigen-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in these macaques 1 or 2 weeks after the SeV boost by detection of specific IFN- $\gamma$  induction. All group III macaques showed efficient Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction after the F(-)SeV-Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP boost (Fig. 1B). In these animals, we also confirmed SeV-EGFP-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> and CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses (Fig. 1C) but did not detect Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses, which are dominantly induced in 90-120-Ia-positive macaques by Gag-expressing SeV vaccination (14). We have never found Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in any previously examined animals, and as expected, analyses with the Gag<sub>236-250</sub> peptide did not detect Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in any of the group III animals in the present study. In group II animals, we detected SeV-EGFP-specific T-cell responses but not Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-specific T-cell responses after the F(-)SeV-EGFP boost (data not shown).

**Control of an SIV challenge in vaccinees.** Group I (unvaccinated), II (control-vaccinated), and III (Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-vaccinated) macaques were challenged intravenously with SIVmac239. Plasma viral loads in these animals were examined after the challenge (Fig. 2A). Most of the group I and II animals failed to contain SIV replication, although plasma viremia became undetectable at week 12 in one animal in group I (R06-037) and one in group II (R06-004). No significant differences were observed between groups I and II in plasma viral loads at the peak, at week 5, at week 12, or around week 24 after the challenge. In contrast, most group III animals contained SIV replication; plasma viral loads became undetectable after week 5 in five of the six animals (Fig. 2A). Plasma viral loads in these animals were significantly lower than those in unvaccinated group I and those in control-vaccinated group II at the peak, at week 5, and at the set point (Fig. 2B). Thus, the prophylactic vaccination inducing Gag<sub>241-249</sub> single-epitope-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses resulted in a significant reduction of peak and subsequent viral loads after the SIV challenge. No significant difference in peripheral CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell counts was observed among these three groups (Fig. 2C).

**Dominant Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in vaccinees after a SIV challenge.** We assessed virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses at weeks 2 and 12 after a SIV challenge by

measuring antigen-specific IFN- $\gamma$  induction. Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses were undetectable or marginal in some naive controls (group I and II) but were efficiently induced in all of the group III animals (Fig. 3A). In most of the naive controls, Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses were induced equivalently or more efficiently than Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> responses, whereas all of the group III animals showed dominant induction of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses. In these group III animals, Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses were inefficient but frequencies of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibiting Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific IFN- $\gamma$  induction were significantly higher than in naive controls at week 2 (Fig. 3B) and week 12. Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies at week 2 inversely correlated with peak viral loads (Fig. 3C).

We also tested SIV-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in these animals (Fig. 4). We used *env* and *nef* deletion-containing simian-human immunodeficiency virus molecular clone DNA SIVGP1 containing the genes encoding SIVmac239 Gag, Pol, Vif, Vpx, and a part of Vpr and measured the frequencies of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells responding to SIVGP1-transduced cells (referred to as SIV-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells) as described previously (15). Naive controls (groups I and II) and vaccinees (group III) were found to possess similar levels of SIV-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells at week 2 and week 12.

In our previous study (27), all of the 90-120-Ia-positive macaques vaccinated with Gag-expressing SeV contained SIV replication with rapid selection of a *gag* mutation (GagL216S), resulting in escape from Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell recognition at week 5, implicating Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses (rather than Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses) in viral control. In the present study, however, five of six Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-vaccinated animals controlled SIV replication and had undetectable set point viremia without selection of *gag* mutation over 5 weeks (data not shown). No *gag* mutation was selected at week 5 in naive controls, either. These results indicate that in the group III macaques, dominantly induced Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in the acute phase play an important role in this vaccine-based SIV control.

**Higher Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific effector memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies in vaccinees.** We then examined Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies in these macaques by using PE-conjugated Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-A\*90120-5 tetramers. In group III animals, Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific tetramer<sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells were still detectable just before the SIV challenge, and their frequencies increased greatly after the challenge; most of the vaccinees exhibited a >10-fold increase at week 2 compared to prechallenge levels (Fig. 5A). Increases in tetramer<sup>+</sup> CD28<sup>-</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies after a challenge were especially marked (>30-fold) (Fig. 5B). Indeed, within the tetramer<sup>+</sup> cells, the ratio of CD28<sup>-</sup> cells increased after a challenge and these cells became predominant at week 2. Analysis of an effector memory subset delineated by the CD95<sup>+</sup> CD28<sup>-</sup> phenotype (29, 34) revealed significantly higher frequencies of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific tetramer<sup>+</sup> CD95<sup>+</sup> CD28<sup>-</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in group III than in naive controls (Fig. 5C). These results suggest efficient responses of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells with effector function in the acute phase in group III animals.

**Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific cytolytic CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses in vaccinees.** To further investigate the cytolytic quality of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses after a challenge, we examined

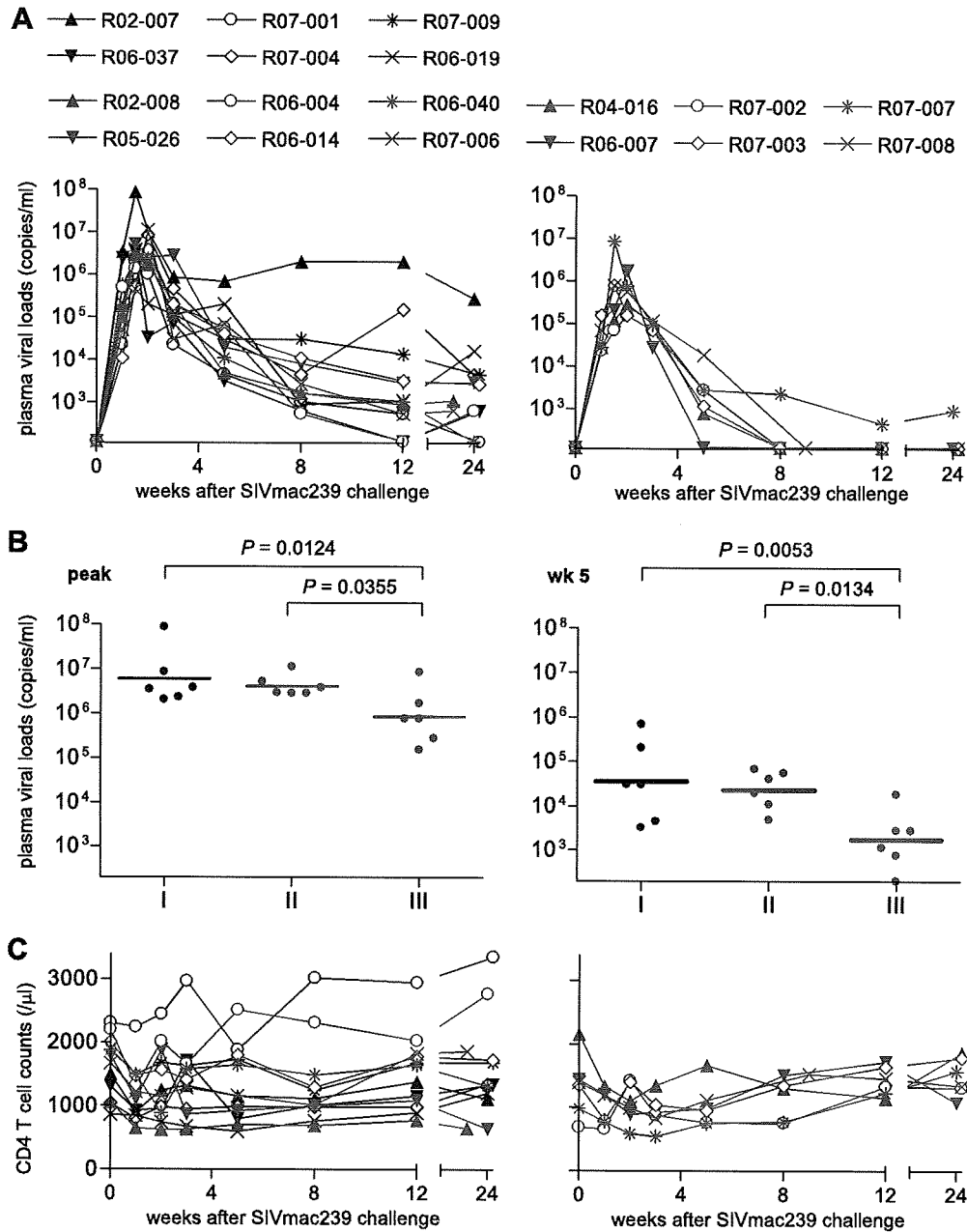


FIG. 2. Plasma viral loads and peripheral CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell counts after a SIV challenge. (A) Changes in plasma viral loads (SIV gag RNA copies/ml plasma) in unvaccinated group I animals (black lines in the left panel), control-vaccinated group II animals (blue lines in the left panel), and Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-vaccinated group III animals (red lines in the right panel) after a SIVmac239 challenge. Plasma viral loads were determined as described previously (27). The lower limit of detection is approximately  $4 \times 10^2$  copies/ml. (B) Comparisons of plasma viral loads in groups I ( $n = 6$ ), II ( $n = 6$ ), and III ( $n = 6$ ) at the peak (left panel) and at week 5 (right panel). The bar indicates the geometric mean of each group. Viral loads at the peak and at week 5 in group III were significantly lower than in group I ( $P = 0.0124$  at the peak and  $P = 0.0053$  at week 5) and group II ( $P = 0.0355$  at the peak and  $P = 0.0134$  at week 5). There were no significant differences between groups I and II either at the peak or at week 5 ( $P = 0.6047$  at the peak and  $P = 0.6536$  at week 5). Set point viral loads in group III were significantly lower than those in group I and group II at week 12 by nonparametric analysis ( $P = 0.3939$  between I and II,  $P = 0.0152$  between I and III, and  $P = 0.0152$  between II and III;  $P = 0.1797$  between I and II,  $P = 0.0260$  between I and III, and  $P = 0.0411$  between II and III around week 24). (C) Changes in peripheral CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell counts (per  $\mu$ l) in groups I (black lines) and II (blue lines) in the left panel and in group III (red lines) in the right panel after a SIVmac239 challenge.

Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific induction of CD107a (a degranulation marker), which is related to cytolytic activity (21, 38), in CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells at week 2. Frequencies of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibiting Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific induction of CD107a, as well as IFN- $\gamma$ ,

within the CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell pool were significantly higher in group III than in naive controls ( $P = 0.0249$  by unpaired  $t$  test) (Fig. 6). One animal, R04-016, in group III did not show Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD107a<sup>+</sup> IFN- $\gamma$ <sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses, but further

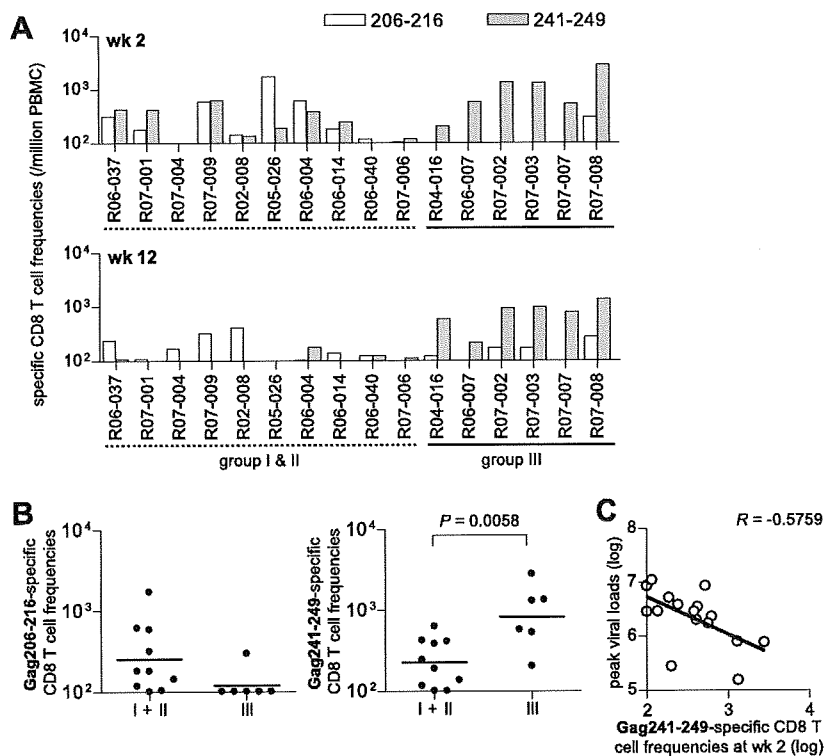


FIG. 3. Gag epitope-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies after a SIV challenge. (A) Frequencies of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells (per million PBMCs) showing Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific (open boxes) or Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific (closed boxes) IFN- $\gamma$  induction in naive controls and group III macaques at week 2 (upper panel) and week 12 (lower panel). (B) Comparison of the Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific (left panel) or Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific (right panel) CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies in naive controls ( $n = 10$ ) and group III animals ( $n = 6$ ) at week 2. The bar indicates the geometric mean of each group. Frequencies of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific ( $P = 0.0058$ ) but not Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific ( $P = 0.0922$ ) CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in group III were significantly higher than in naive controls. The Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific frequencies at week 12 in group III were significantly higher than those in naive controls ( $P < 0.0001$ ). (C) Analysis of the correlation between Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies (log) at week 2 and peak plasma viral loads (log). An inverse correlation is shown ( $P = 0.0196$ ,  $R = -0.5759$ ). Samples from macaques R02-007 and R06-019 in group I were unavailable for this analysis.

analysis revealed that this animal had Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific granzyme B<sup>+</sup> IFN- $\gamma$ <sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. Indeed, group III animals had significantly higher frequencies of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific IFN- $\gamma$ <sup>+</sup> CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells producing CD107a, granzyme B, or perforin ( $P = 0.0076$ ; data not shown). These results indicate efficient induction of Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells with higher cytolytic activity in the acute phase in group III animals.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, induction of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells specific for a single Gag<sub>241-249</sub> epitope by prophylactic vaccination resulted in a significant reduction of plasma viral loads after a SIV challenge. Even if vaccines are designed to express multiple antigens, of the vaccine-induced CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells generated, at most one or only a few epitope-specific cells may recognize the incoming HIV because of viral diversity and host MHC polymorphisms (10). Our finding, however, implies that even a CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell memory response to a single epitope which can recognize the incoming HIV could facilitate HIV control.

Group III macaques showed more effective CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses than did naive controls after a SIV challenge. Our previous trial of a vaccine inducing Gag-specific T-cell responses resulted in SIV control in 90-120-Ia-positive macaques with rapid selection of the GagL216S mutation escaping from Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell recognition at week 5 (27). In contrast, the Gag<sub>236-250</sub> vaccination resulted in SIV control without gag mutation selection over 5 weeks in the present study, reflecting the fact that, rather than Gag<sub>206-216</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses, dominantly induced Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses played a central role in the reduc-

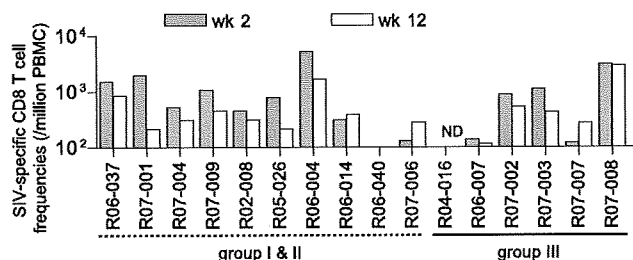


FIG. 4. SIV-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies after a SIV challenge. SIV-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell frequencies (per million PBMCs) in naive controls and group III macaques at week 2 (closed boxes) and week 12 (open boxes) are shown. ND, not determined.



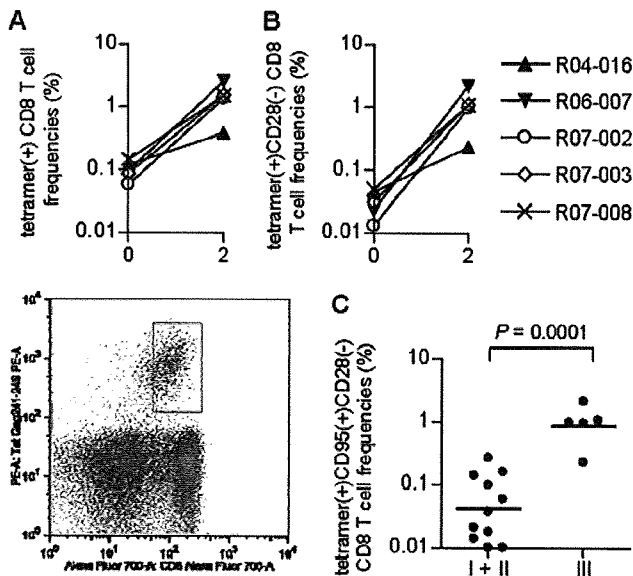


FIG. 5. Frequencies of  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells detected by  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -Mamu-A\*90120-5 tetramers after a SIV challenge. (A) Frequencies of  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -Mamu-A\*90120-5 tetramer $^+$  cells within  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells in group III animals before a challenge (week 0) or at week 2 after a challenge. A representative dot plot gated on  $\text{CD3}^+$  lymphocytes for determining tetramer $^+$   $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells (x axis, CD8; y axis, tetramer) in macaque R07-008 is shown in the lower panel. (B) Tetramer $^+$   $\text{CD28}^-$  cell frequencies in  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells in group III animals at weeks 0 and 2. Data on tetramer $^+$   $\text{CD95}^+$   $\text{CD28}^-$   $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell frequencies at week 0 are unavailable. (C) Tetramer $^+$   $\text{CD95}^+$   $\text{CD28}^-$   $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell frequencies in naive controls (groups I and II) and group III animals at week 2. The bar indicates the geometric mean of each group. The frequencies in group III were significantly higher than those in naive controls ( $P = 0.0001$  by unpaired  $t$  test). Samples from macaques R06-019 in group I and R07-007 in group III were unavailable for this analysis.

tion of viral loads in the acute phase. These results suggest that this vaccination approach altered the dominance pattern of  $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell responses and resulted in dominant induction of effective  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific  $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell responses in the

acute phase after a SIV challenge, facilitating a reduction in peak viral loads. Selection of vaccine epitopes for induction of  $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell responses might be important for viral control because the antiviral efficacy of  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells could be affected by MHC-I-restricted target epitopes (10, 19, 25, 35).

$\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific  $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell induction by prophylactic vaccination resulted in higher frequencies of these T-cell responses during the acute phase after the SIV challenge. The induction of  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific effector memory  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells was especially marked. We did not examine polyfunctionality, but analyses of a cytolytic marker,  $\text{CD107a}$ , indicated higher frequencies of  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific cytolytic  $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell responses, implying that these T cells originating from vaccine-induced memory may have higher cytolytic activity in the acute phase. These results suggest that group III animals with  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific memory  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells showed induction of a high magnitude of  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells with effector function after a SIV challenge, resulting in reduction of viral loads in the acute phase.

In this study, some  $90-120\text{-Ia}$ -positive unvaccinated macaques showed lower viral loads. However, in our previous studies with Burmese rhesus macaques (reference 15 and unpublished data), all unvaccinated  $90-120\text{-Ia}$ -negative animals failed to contain a SIVmac239 challenge and animals, including vaccinees, that failed to control SIVmac239 replication developed AIDS in 1 to 4 years; even R-90-120 descendants possessing the MHC-I haplotype  $90-120\text{-Ib}$  but not  $90-120\text{-Ia}$  (both  $90-120\text{-Ia}$  and  $90-120\text{-Ib}$  are derived from breeder R-90-120) showed high viral loads. Additionally,  $90-120\text{-Ia}$ -positive animals failed to control the replication of SIVmac239 carrying CTL escape mutations (16). Thus, a SIVmac239 challenge of Burmese rhesus macaques mostly results in persistent viremia and progression to AIDS but some  $90-120\text{-Ia}$ -positive animals may show lower viral loads due to  $90-120\text{-Ia}$ -associated SIV-specific CTL responses. However, a previously reported  $90-120\text{-Ia}$ -positive unvaccinated macaque, R02-007, developed AIDS around 3 years after a SIVmac239 challenge. Furthermore, two of the  $90-120\text{-Ia}$ -positive vaccinees that controlled a SIVmac239 challenge but showed reappearance of viremia

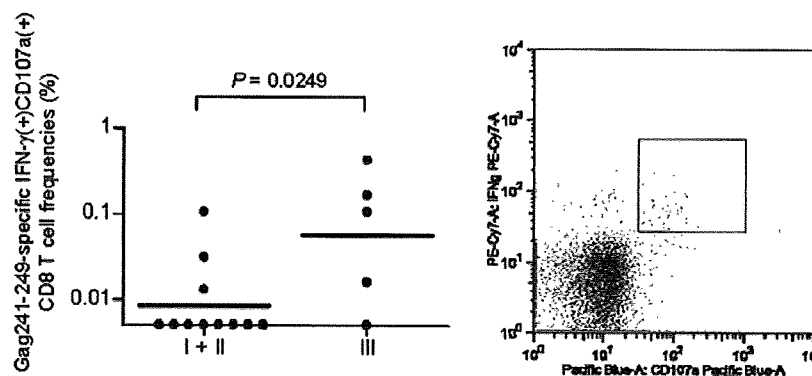


FIG. 6.  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific cytolytic  $\text{CD8}^+$  T-cell frequencies at week 2 after a challenge. PBMCs were cultured in the absence or the presence of the  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$  peptide for unstimulated controls or  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific stimulation, and the frequencies of  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells exhibiting  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific induction of both  $\text{IFN-}\gamma$  and  $\text{CD107a}$  in the total  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells were examined. The bar indicates the geometric mean of each group. The frequencies in group III were significantly higher than those in naive controls ( $P = 0.0249$  by unpaired  $t$  test). The right panel is a representative dot plot showing the  $\text{CD107a}$  (x axis) and  $\text{IFN-}\gamma$  (y axis) responses in  $\text{CD8}^+$  T cells in macaque R07-008 after  $\text{Gag}_{241-249}$ -specific stimulation. Samples from macaques R06-019 in group I and R07-007 in group III were unavailable for this analysis.

around 1 year later developed AIDS (15). Thus, it is inferred that the majority of *90-120-Ia*-positive unvaccinated macaques develop AIDS after a SIVmac239 challenge. Several MHC-I alleles are known to be associated with lower viral loads in HIV and SIV infections, and potent CTLs directed against these MHC-I-restricted epitopes have been implicated in the suppression of viral replication (7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 18, 22, 31, 33, 48). The Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CTL may also be naturally potent (10, 16), but the impact of memory induction of even these potent CTLs on viral control has not yet been determined. Thus, this is the first study documenting the benefit of single-epitope-specific memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction by prophylactic vaccination for HIV/SIV control. Further analysis with a vaccine expressing a single helper epitope, as well as a CTL epitope, would contribute to evaluation of the impact of HIV/SIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell memory induction on HIV/SIV replication.

Because CCR5<sup>+</sup> memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, especially HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, are themselves targets of this virus, whether virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction by prophylactic vaccination can result in effective virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses postinfection and contribute to HIV control remains unclear. On the other hand, it has been unknown whether HIV-specific memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells induced by vaccination without HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help can elicit effective responses after virus exposure. In the present study, the pGag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP/F(-)SeV-Gag<sub>236-250</sub>-EGFP vaccination elicited Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses without SIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help but possibly with EGFP-specific or SeV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help; i.e., SeV-EGFP-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells would confer cognate help for Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction. The Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells induced by prophylactic vaccination without SIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help but with non-SIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses responded efficiently to a SIV challenge, showing dominant Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses resulting in SIV control; infection-induced SIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses may be involved in Gag<sub>241-249</sub>-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell induction postinfection. Therefore, this study documents that prophylactic vaccination eliciting virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell memory even without virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses (but with cognate non-virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses) can facilitate SIV control after a challenge.

Taken together, the present study demonstrates that induction of single-epitope-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell memory without virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help by prophylactic vaccination can result in dominant potent CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses and control of SIV replication after a challenge. These results imply possible HIV control by prophylactic vaccination eliciting virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell memory with non-virus-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell help and provide valuable insights into AIDS vaccine development.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

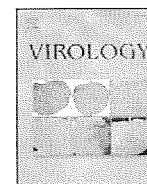
This work was supported by grants from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology and grants from the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare in Japan. The animal experiments were conducted through the Cooperative Research Program in the Tsukuba Primate Research Center, National Institute of Biomedical Innovation, with the help of the Corporation for Production and Research of Laboratory Primates.

We thank H. Akari, Y. Yasutomi, F. Ono, A. Hiyaoka, K. Komatsuzaki, K. Oto, K. Ishikawa, and T. Nakasone for their assistance in animal experiments; DNAVEC Corp. for providing SeV vectors; M. Roederer for providing the PESTLE and SPICE software; and Y. Tsunetsugu-Yokota, H. Igarashi, A. Kimura, T. Naruse, M. Miyazawa, K. Mori, N. Yamamoto, A. Nomoto, and Y. Nagai for their help.

#### REFERENCES

1. Anonymous. 2007. Cold shower for AIDS vaccines. *Nat. Med.* 13:1389-1390.
2. Argüello, J. R., A. M. Little, A. L. Pay, D. Gallardo, I. Rojas, S. G. Marsh, J. M. Goldman, and J. A. Madrigal. 1998. Mutation detection and typing of polymorphic loci through double-strand conformation analysis. *Nat. Genet.* 18:192-194.
3. Borrow, P., H. Lewicki, B. H. Hahn, G. M. Shaw, and M. B. Oldstone. 1994. Virus-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic T-lymphocyte activity associated with control of viremia in primary human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infection. *J. Virol.* 68:6103-6110.
4. Brander, C., and B. D. Walker. 1999. T lymphocyte responses in HIV-1 infection: implication for vaccine development. *Curr. Opin. Immunol.* 11:451-459.
5. Douek, D. C., J. M. Brenchley, M. R. Betts, D. R. Ambrozak, B. J. Hill, Y. Okamoto, J. P. Casazza, J. Kuruppu, K. Kunstman, S. Wolinsky, Z. Grossman, M. Dybul, A. Oxenius, D. A. Price, M. Connors, and R. A. Koop. 2002. HIV preferentially infects HIV-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. *Nature* 417:95-98.
6. Feinberg, M. B., and J. P. Moore. 2002. AIDS vaccine models: challenging challenge viruses. *Nat. Med.* 8:207-210.
7. Friedrich, T. C., E. J. Dodds, L. J. Yant, L. Vojnov, R. Rudersdorf, C. Cullen, D. T. Evans, R. C. Desrosiers, B. R. Mothe, J. Sidney, A. Sette, K. Kunstman, S. Wolinsky, M. Piatak, J. Lifson, A. L. Hughes, N. Wilson, D. H. O'Connor, and D. I. Watkins. 2004. Reversion of CTL escape-variant immunodeficiency viruses in vivo. *Nat. Med.* 10:275-281.
8. Goulder, P. J., M. Bunce, P. Krausa, K. McIntyre, S. Crowley, B. Morgan, A. Edwards, P. Giangrande, R. E. Phillips, and A. J. McMichael. 1996. Novel, cross-restricted, conserved, and immunodominant cytotoxic T lymphocyte epitopes in slow progressors in HIV type 1 infection. *AIDS Res. Hum. Retrovir.* 12:1691-1698.
9. Goulder, P. J., and D. I. Watkins. 2004. HIV and SIV CTL escape: implications for vaccine design. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 4:630-640.
10. Goulder, P. J. R., and D. I. Watkins. 2008. Impact of MHC class I diversity on immune control of immunodeficiency virus replication. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 8:619-630.
11. Janssen, E. M., E. E. Lemmens, T. Wolfe, U. Christen, M. G. von Herrath, and S. P. Schoenberger. 2003. CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells are required for secondary expansion and memory in CD8<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes. *Nature* 421:852-856.
12. Jin, X., D. E. Bauer, S. E. Tuttleton, S. Lewin, A. Gettie, J. Blanchard, C. E. Irwin, J. T. Safritz, J. Mittler, L. Weinberger, L. G. Kostrikis, L. Zhang, A. S. Perelson, and D. D. Ho. 1999. Dramatic rise in plasma viremia after CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell depletion in simian immunodeficiency virus-infected macaques. *J. Exp. Med.* 189:991-998.
13. Kaslow, R. A., M. Carrington, R. Apple, L. Park, A. Muñoz, A. J. Saah, J. J. Goedert, C. Winkler, S. J. O'Brien, C. Rinaldo, R. Detels, W. Blattner, J. Phair, H. Erlich, and D. L. Mann. 1996. Influence of combinations of human major histocompatibility complex genes on the course of HIV-1 infection. *Nat. Med.* 2:405-411.
14. Kawada, M., H. Igarashi, A. Takeda, T. Tsukamoto, H. Yamamoto, S. Dohki, M. Takiguchi, and T. Matano. 2006. Involvement of multiple epitope-specific cytotoxic T-lymphocyte responses in vaccine-based control of simian immunodeficiency virus replication in rhesus macaques. *J. Virol.* 80:1949-1958.
15. Kawada, M., T. Tsukamoto, H. Yamamoto, A. Takeda, H. Igarashi, D. I. Watkins, and T. Matano. 2007. Long-term control of simian immunodeficiency virus replication with central memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell preservation after nonsterile protection by a cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-based vaccine. *J. Virol.* 81:5202-5211.
16. Kawada, M., T. Tsukamoto, H. Yamamoto, N. Iwamoto, K. Kurihara, A. Takeda, C. Moriya, H. Takeuchi, H. Akari, and T. Matano. 2008. Gag-specific cytotoxic T lymphocyte-based control of primary simian immunodeficiency virus replication in a vaccine trial. *J. Virol.* 82:10199-10206.
17. Kestler, H. W., III, D. J. Ringler, K. Mori, D. L. Panicali, P. K. Sehgal, M. D. Daniel, and R. C. Desrosiers. 1991. Importance of the nef gene for maintenance of high virus loads and for development of AIDS. *Cell* 65:651-662.
18. Kiepiela, P., A. J. Leslie, I. Honeyborne, D. Ramduth, C. Thobakgale, S. Chetty, P. Rathnavalu, C. Moore, K. J. Pfafferott, L. Hilton, P. Zimbwa, S. Moore, T. Allen, C. Brander, M. M. Addo, M. Altfeld, I. James, S. Mallal, M. Bunce, L. D. Barber, J. Szinger, C. Day, P. Klenerman, J. Mullins, B. Korber, H. M. Coovadia, B. D. Walker, and P. J. Goulder. 2004. Dominant influence of HLA-B in mediating the potential co-evolution of HIV and HLA. *Nature* 432:769-775.
19. Kiepiela, P., K. Ngumbela, C. Thobakgale, D. Ramduth, I. Honeyborne, E. Moodley, S. Reddy, C. de Pierres, Z. Mncube, N. Mkhwanazi, K. Bishop, M. van der Stok, K. Nair, N. Khan, H. Crawford, R. Payne, A. Leslie, J. Prado,

- A. Prendergast, J. Frater, N. McCarthy, C. Brander, G. H. Learn, D. Nickle, C. Rousseau, H. Coovadia, J. I. Mullins, D. Heckerman, B. D. Walker, and P. Goulder. 2007. CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cell responses to different HIV proteins have discordant associations with viral load. *Nat. Med.* **13**:46–53.
20. Koup, R. A., J. T. Saffrit, Y. Cao, C. A. Andrews, G. McLeod, W. Borkowsky, C. Farthing, and D. D. Ho. 1994. Temporal association of cellular immune responses with the initial control of viremia in primary human immunodeficiency virus type 1 syndrome. *J. Virol.* **68**:4650–4655.
  21. Lamoreaux, L., M. Roederer, and R. Koup. 2006. Intracellular cytokine optimization and standard operating procedure. *Nat. Protoc.* **1**:1507–1516.
  22. Leslie, A. J., K. J. Pfaffert, P. Chetty, R. Draenert, M. M. Addo, M. Feeney, Y. Tang, E. C. Holmes, T. Allen, J. G. Prado, M. Altfeld, C. Brander, C. Dixon, D. Ramduth, P. Jeena, S. A. Thomas, A. St. John, T. A. Roach, B. Kupfer, G. Luzzi, A. Edwards, G. Taylor, H. Lyall, G. Tudor-Williams, V. Novelli, J. Martinez-Picado, P. Kiepiela, B. D. Walker, and P. J. Goulder. 2004. HIV evolution: CTL escape mutation and reversion after transmission. *Nat. Med.* **10**:282–289.
  23. Letvin, N. L., J. R. Mascola, Y. Sun, D. A. Gorgone, A. P. Buzby, L. Xu, Z. Y. Yang, B. Chakrabarti, S. S. Rao, J. E. Schmitz, D. C. Montefiori, B. R. Barker, F. L. Bookstein, and G. J. Nabel. 2006. Preserved CD4<sup>+</sup> central memory T cells and survival in vaccinated SIV-challenged monkeys. *Science* **312**:1530–1533.
  24. Li, H. O., Y. F. Zhu, M. Asakawa, H. Kuma, T. Hirata, Y. Ueda, Y. S. Lee, M. Fukumura, A. Iida, A. Kato, Y. Nagai, and M. Hasegawa. 2000. A cytoplasmic RNA vector derived from nontransmissible Sendai virus with efficient gene transfer and expression. *J. Virol.* **74**:6564–6569.
  25. Loffredo, J. T., A. T. Bean, D. R. Beal, E. J. León, G. E. May, S. M. Piaskowski, J. R. Furlott, J. Reed, S. K. Musani, E. G. Rakasz, T. C. Friedrich, N. A. Wilson, D. B. Allison, and D. I. Watkins. 2008. Patterns of CD8<sup>+</sup> immunodominance may influence the ability of Mamu-B\*08-positive macaques to naturally control simian immunodeficiency virus SIVmac239 replication. *J. Virol.* **82**:1723–1738.
  26. Matano, T., M. Kano, H. Nakamura, A. Takeda, and Y. Nagai. 2001. Rapid appearance of secondary immune responses and protection from acute CD4 depletion after a highly pathogenic immunodeficiency virus challenge in macaques vaccinated with a DNA-prime/Sendai viral vector-boost regimen. *J. Virol.* **75**:11891–11896.
  27. Matano, T., M. Kobayashi, H. Igarashi, A. Takeda, H. Nakamura, M. Kano, C. Sugimoto, K. Mori, A. Iida, T. Hirata, M. Hasegawa, T. Yuasa, M. Miyazawa, Y. Takahashi, M. Yasunami, A. Kimura, D. H. O'Connor, D. I. Watkins, and Y. Nagai. 2004. Cytotoxic T lymphocyte-based control of simian immunodeficiency virus replication in a preclinical AIDS vaccine trial. *J. Exp. Med.* **199**:1709–1718.
  28. Matano, T., R. Shibata, C. Siemon, M. Connors, H. C. Lane, and M. A. Martin. 1998. Administration of an anti-CD8 monoclonal antibody interferes with the clearance of chimeric simian/human immunodeficiency virus during primary infections of rhesus macaques. *J. Virol.* **72**:164–169.
  29. Mattapallil, J. J., N. L. Letvin, and M. Roederer. 2004. T-cell dynamics during acute SIV infection. *AIDS* **18**:13–23.
  30. McMichael, A. J., and T. Hanke. 2003. HIV vaccines 1983–2003. *Nat. Med.* **9**:874–880.
  31. Migueles, S. A., M. S. Sabbaghian, W. L. Shupert, M. P. Bettinotti, F. M. Marincola, L. Martino, C. W. Hallahan, S. M. Selig, D. Schwartz, J. Sullivan, and M. Connors. 2000. HLA B\*5701 is highly associated with restriction of virus replication in a subgroup of HIV-infected long term nonprogressors. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **97**:2709–2714.
  32. National Institute of Infectious Diseases. 2007. Guides for animal experiments performed at National Institute of Infectious Diseases. National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan. (In Japanese.)
  33. O'Connor, D. H., B. R. Mothe, J. T. Weinfurter, S. Fuenger, W. M. Rehrauer, P. Jing, R. R. Rudersdorf, M. E. Liebl, K. Krebs, J. Vasquez, E. Dodds, J. Loffredo, S. Martin, A. B. McDermott, T. M. Allen, C. Wang, G. G. Dodiadis, D. C. Montefiori, A. Hughes, D. R. Burton, D. B. Allison, S. M. Wolinsky, R. Bontrop, L. J. Picker, and D. I. Watkins. 2003. Major histocompatibility complex class I alleles associated with slow simian immunodeficiency virus disease progression bind epitopes recognized by dominant acute-phase cytotoxic-T-lymphocyte responses. *J. Virol.* **77**:9029–9040.
  34. Pitcher, C. J., S. I. Hagen, J. M. Walker, R. Lum, B. L. Mitchell, V. C. Maino, M. K. Axthelm, and L. J. Picker. 2002. Development and homeostasis of T cell memory in rhesus macaques. *J. Immunol.* **168**:29–43.
  35. Reynolds, M. R., A. M. Weiler, K. L. Weisgrau, S. M. Piaskowski, J. R. Furlott, J. T. Weinfurter, M. Kaizu, T. Soma, E. J. León, C. MacNair, D. P. Leaman, M. B. Zwick, E. Gostick, S. K. Musani, D. A. Price, T. C. Friedrich, E. G. Rakasz, N. A. Wilson, A. B. McDermott, R. Boyle, D. B. Allison, D. R. Burton, W. C. Koff, and D. I. Watkins. 2008. Macaques vaccinated with live-attenuated SIV control replication of heterologous virus. *J. Exp. Med.* **205**:2537–2550.
  36. Rosenberg, E. S., J. M. Billingsley, A. M. Caliendo, S. L. Boswell, P. E. Sax, S. A. Kalams, and B. D. Walker. 1997. Vigorous HIV-1-specific CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell responses associated with control of viremia. *Science* **278**:1447–1450.
  37. Schmitz, J. E., M. J. Kuroda, S. Santra, V. G. Sasseville, M. A. Simon, M. A. Lifton, P. Racz, K. Tenner-Racz, M. Dalesandro, B. J. Scallon, J. Ghayeb, M. A. Forman, D. C. Montefiori, E. P. Rieber, N. L. Letvin, and K. A. Reimann. 1999. Control of viremia in simian immunodeficiency virus infection by CD8<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes. *Science* **283**:857–860.
  38. Seder, R. A., P. A. Darrah, and M. Roederer. 2008. T-cell quality in memory and protection: implications for vaccine design. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* **8**:247–258.
  39. Shaffer, J. P. 1986. Modified sequentially rejective multiple test procedures. *J. Am. Stat. Assoc.* **81**:826–831.
  40. Shedlock, D. J., and H. Shen. 2003. Requirement for CD4 T cell help in generating functional CD8 T cell memory. *Science* **300**:337–339.
  41. Shibata, R., F. Maldarelli, C. Siemon, T. Matano, M. Parta, G. Miller, T. Fredrickson, and M. A. Martin. 1997. Infection and pathogenicity of chimeric simian-human immunodeficiency viruses in macaques: determinants of high virus loads and CD4 cell killing. *J. Infect. Dis.* **176**:362–373.
  42. Staprans, S. I., A. P. Barry, G. Silvestri, J. T. Saffrit, N. Kozyr, B. Sumpter, H. Nguyen, H. McClure, D. Montefiori, J. I. Cohen, and M. B. Feinberg. 2004. Enhanced SIV replication and accelerated progression to AIDS in macaques primed to mount a CD4 T cell response to the SIV envelope protein. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **101**:13026–13031.
  43. Sun, J. C., and M. J. Bevan. 2003. Defective CD8 T cell memory following acute infection without CD4 T cell help. *Science* **300**:339–342.
  44. Tanaka-Takahashi, Y., M. Yasunami, T. Naruse, K. Hinohara, T. Matano, K. Mori, M. Miysazawa, M. Honda, Y. Yasutomi, Y. Nagai, and A. Kimura. 2007. Reference strand-mediated conformation analysis (RSCA)-based typing of multiple alleles in the rhesus macaque MHC class I Mamu-A and Mamu-B loci. *Electrophoresis* **28**:918–924.
  45. Tsukamoto, T., S. Dohki, T. Ueno, M. Kawada, A. Takeda, M. Yasunami, T. Naruse, A. Kimura, M. Takiguchi, and T. Matano. 2008. Determination of a major histocompatibility complex class I restricting simian immunodeficiency virus Gag241–249 epitope. *AIDS* **22**:993–994.
  46. Vaccari, M., J. Mattapallil, K. Song, W. P. Tsai, A. Hryniewicz, D. Venzon, M. Zanetti, K. A. Reimann, M. Roederer, and G. Franchini. 2008. Reduced protection from simian immunodeficiency virus SIVmac251 infection afforded by memory CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells induced by vaccination during CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell deficiency. *J. Virol.* **82**:9629–9638.
  47. Wilson, N. A., J. Reed, G. S. Napoc, S. Piaskowski, A. Szymanski, J. Furlott, E. J. Gonzalez, L. J. Yant, N. J. Maness, G. E. May, T. Soma, M. R. Reynolds, E. Rakasz, R. Rudersdorf, A. B. McDermott, D. H. O'Connor, T. C. Friedrich, D. B. Allison, A. Patki, L. J. Picker, D. R. Burton, J. Lin, L. Huang, D. Patel, G. Heindecker, J. Fan, M. Citron, M. Horton, F. Wang, X. Liang, J. W. Shiver, D. R. Casimiro, and D. I. Watkins. 2006. Vaccine-induced cellular immune responses reduce plasma viral concentrations after repeated low-dose challenge with pathogenic simian immunodeficiency virus SIVmac239. *J. Virol.* **80**:5875–5885.
  48. Yant, L. J., T. C. Friedrich, R. C. Johnson, G. E. May, N. J. Maness, A. M. Enz, J. D. Lifson, D. H. O'Connor, M. Carrington, and D. I. Watkins. 2006. The high-frequency major histocompatibility complex class I allele Mamu-B\*17 is associated with control of simian immunodeficiency virus SIVmac239 replication. *J. Virol.* **80**:5074–5077.



## Contribution of RING domain to retrovirus restriction by TRIM5 $\alpha$ depends on combination of host and virus

Hikoichiro Maegawa, Tadashi Miyamoto, Jun-ichi Sakuragi, Tatsuo Shioda, Emi E. Nakayama\*

Department of Viral Infections, Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University, 3-1, Yamadaoka, Suita-shi, Osaka 565-0871, Japan

### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 19 October 2009

Returned to author for revision

8 November 2009

Accepted 5 January 2010

Available online 29 January 2010

### ABSTRACT

The anti-retroviral restriction factor TRIM5 $\alpha$  contains the RING domain, which is frequently observed in E3 ubiquitin ligases. It was previously proposed that TRIM5 $\alpha$  restricts human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) via proteasome-dependent and -independent pathways. Here we examined the effects of RING domain mutations on retrovirus restriction by TRIM5 $\alpha$  in various combinations of virus and host species. Simian immunodeficiency virus isolated from macaque (SIVmac) successfully avoided attacks by RING mutants of African green monkey (AGM)-TRIM5 $\alpha$  that could still restrict HIV-1. Addition of proteasome inhibitor did not affect the anti-HIV-1 activity of AGM-TRIM5 $\alpha$ , whereas it disrupted at least partly its anti-SIVmac activity. In the case of mutant human TRIM5 $\alpha$  carrying proline at the position 332, however, both HIV-1 and SIVmac restrictions were eliminated as a result of RING domain mutations. These results suggested that the mechanisms of retrovirus restriction by TRIM5 $\alpha$  vary depending on the combination of host and virus.

© 2010 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

### Introduction

Replication of retroviruses is influenced by several factors in host cells. Tripartite motif protein (TRIM) 5 $\alpha$  has been identified as a restriction factor of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) in rhesus monkey (Rh) cells (Stremlau et al., 2004). Rh TRIM5 $\alpha$  potently restricts HIV-1 but only weakly does so simian immunodeficiency virus isolated from macaque (SIVmac) (Stremlau et al., 2004; Song et al., 2005), whereas African green monkey (AGM) TRIM5 $\alpha$  can potently restrict both HIV-1 and SIVmac (Nakayama et al., 2005; Song et al., 2005). TRIM5 $\alpha$  consists of the RING, B-box 2, coiled-coil, and SPRY (B30.2) domains (Reymond et al., 2001). Differences in the amino acid sequences in the SPRY domain of TRIM5 $\alpha$  of different monkey species were shown to affect the species-specific restriction of retrovirus infection (Perez-Caballero et al., 2005a; Nakayama et al., 2005; Sawyer et al., 2005; Stremlau et al., 2005; Yap et al., 2005). In addition, biochemical studies have shown that TRIM5 $\alpha$  associates with retroviral capsid (CA) protein in detergent-stripped virions or with an artificially constituted core structure composed of capsid-nucleocapsid (CA-NC) fusion protein in a SPRY domain-dependent manner (Sebastian and Luban, 2005; Stremlau et al., 2006a). The SPRY domain is thus thought to recognize viral core. The coiled-coil domain

of TRIM5 $\alpha$  is important for the formation of homo-oligomers (Mische et al., 2005) and is essential for antiviral activity (Javanbakht et al., 2006). The intact B-box 2 domain is also required for TRIM5 $\alpha$  mediated antiviral activity, since the restrictive activity of TRIM5 $\alpha$  is diminished by amino acid substitutions in the B-box 2 domain (Javanbakht et al., 2005). RING containing proteins were frequently found to possess E3 ubiquitin ligase activity (Jackson et al., 2000). Indeed, Rh TRIM5 $\alpha$  was poly-ubiquitinated and degraded rapidly via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway, while disruption of the RING domain eliminated its auto-ubiquitination (Diaz-Griffero et al., 2006). Furthermore, it was demonstrated that TRIM5 $\alpha$  is degraded via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway during HIV-1 restriction (Rold and Aiken, 2008). However, deletion of the RING domain in TRIM5 $\alpha$  only partially attenuates anti-HIV-1 activity (Javanbakht et al., 2005; Perez-Caballero et al., 2005b). Moreover, modulation of E1 ubiquitin-activating enzyme expression did not affect TRIM5 $\alpha$ -mediated restriction activity in a temperature-dependent cell line (Perez-Caballero et al., 2005b) and finally, proteasome inhibitors did not affect TRIM5 $\alpha$  mediated HIV-1 restriction (Anderson et al., 2006; Perez-Caballero et al., 2005b; Rold and Aiken, 2008; Stremlau et al., 2006a; Wu et al., 2006) even though they allowed HIV-1 to generate viral late reverse transcripts under TRIM5 $\alpha$  mediated HIV-1 restriction (Anderson et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2006). The exact role of the TRIM5 $\alpha$  RING domain in retrovirus restriction thus remains unclear.

In the study presented here, we investigated the effects of RING domain mutations on HIV-1 and SIVmac restrictions by TRIM5 $\alpha$  and report that TRIM5 $\alpha$  restricts HIV-1 and SIVmac differently.

\* Corresponding author. Fax: +81 6 6879 8347.

E-mail address: [emien@biken.osaka-u.ac.jp](mailto:emien@biken.osaka-u.ac.jp) (E.E. Nakayama).